The Library in General Education

FORTY-SECOND YEARBOOK, PART II

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THE

FORTY-SECOND YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART II

THE LIBRARY IN GENERAL EDUCATION

Prepared by the Society's Committee

LOUIS R. WILSON (*Chairman*), RALPH A. BEALS, LEON CARNOVSKY,
BESS GOODYKOONTZ, WILLIAM S. GRAY, B. LAMAR JOHNSON,
ANNA CLARK KENNEDY, ELEANOR M. WITMER, AND
ASSOCIATED CONTRIBUTORS

Edited by

NELSON B. HENRY

THIS PART OF THE YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE ST. LOUIS MEETING OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY, MONDAY, MARCH 1, 1943, 1:45 P.M.

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EDITOR'S PREFACE

Plans for this Yearbook, *The Library in General Education*, were initiated at a meeting of the Board of Directors in May, 1940. The suggestion that a yearbook be devoted to the subject of the library was offered by several members of the Society in response to an inquiry by Miss Goodykoontz, Chairman of the Board of Directors, in 1939. At the request of Miss Goodykoontz, Mr. Ralph M. Dunbar, Chief of the Library Service Division of the United States Office of Education, appeared before the Board to discuss the values of the proposed yearbook. Mr. Dunbar presented an outline which had been developed by a committee of librarians of which Louis R. Wilson, Dean of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, was the chairman. This outline dealt with such topics as the functions of the library in formal education, the public library as an agency of informal education, the professional aspects of library service, and the housing and equipment requisite to effective library use.

The discussion of this outline by members of the Board led to the conclusion that a desirable yearbook might be developed with emphasis upon the role of the library as an integral part of the educational system. Accordingly, Dean Wilson was invited to prepare the outline of such a yearbook for the further consideration of the Board. Dean Wilson's suggestions received the favorable consideration of the Board at its meeting in November and an appropriation was authorized to meet the expenses of a conference to complete arrangements for the preparation of a yearbook on the library in relation to education to be published in 1943.

Taking advantage of the meeting in Chicago of the American Library Association on December 30, Dean Wilson assembled a number of prominent librarians and educators for discussion of the plan and problems of the yearbook. A second conference was held in Chicago on January 19, 1941, at which time the scope and organization of the yearbook were considered by a preliminary committee composed of representatives of several library agencies and members of the faculties of three higher institutions. The criticisms and suggestions of this committee were embodied in a revised outline entitled "The Library in Rela-

tion to General Education," which was presented to the Board at Atlantic City in February. An appropriation of $1,200 was then authorized for the preparation of the yearbook and Dean Wilson was instructed to organize the yearbook committee in accordance with the suggestions offered by the preliminary committee and approved by the Board.

Recognition of the need for the present yearbook may be ascribed to the concern of teachers and librarians alike for continuing improvement in the effectiveness with which library service contributes to the progress of education generally. Changes in the structure and methodology of formal education since 1900 have so markedly accentuated the values of library use that the traditional idea of the library as an adjunct of the school has been displaced by the concept of library service as a functional aspect of institutional training. Similarly, the purposes and procedures of non-school libraries have been subjected to review in terms of the broadening interests and needs of adults in this period of rapid social change. It is a significant fact for general education that the developing demands upon both school and community libraries have tended to magnify the importance of library use as a continuing influence in promoting the cultural, vocational, and recreational interests of all age groups. It is also significant that the expanding services of libraries within the schools have sometimes been met only in part by normal additions to school facilities and in part by co-operative arrangements with the separate libraries, public or private, serving the same communities. In other situations the school plant has afforded the only ready means whereby the community libraries could meet the demand for wider distribution of their services on behalf of adults and out-of-school youth. Thus, experimentally, the library requirements of both the more and the less formal phases of general education in the community sense are being provided by both school and non-school agencies without restrictions upon the population groups to be served. In order that the role of library service may be more clearly defined and that the means of properly implementing this service may be better understood, the committee presents this report of its thoroughgoing study of *The Library in General Education.*

NELSON B. HENRY

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INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

PURPOSES AND SCOPE OF THE YEARBOOK

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Justification for the publication of a Yearbook on the library in relation to general education rests upon two significant facts: changes have taken place in American life since 1900 which have profoundly modified the pattern of modern education; these changes have placed upon elementary and secondary schools, junior and liberal-arts colleges, teachers colleges and other institutions engaged in the training of teachers, and school, college, university, and public libraries the responsibility of reconsidering library service in general education and putting it to more effective use in the attainment of the educational objectives of a democratic society.

I. PURPOSE OF THE YEARBOOK

The purpose of the Yearbook grows logically out of this situation. The library, in its varied forms, has been established and supported as one of America's important educational agencies. As such, it should be responsive to the educational demands which society imposes upon it. Consequently, the Yearbook has been prepared to assist teachers and librarians in integrating library service more effectively in formal and informal education. Stated differently, it has been prepared to answer specifically such questions as the following:

1. What implications of recent social changes, related educational developments, and increasing understanding of pupil growth and development aid in defining the nature of library services in general education?

2. In the light of the foregoing analysis, (*a*) what are the most forward-looking concepts of library service in general education that may be adopted as a basis for constructive effort in the immediate future? (*b*) what are the basic principles that may serve as guides in the provision, organization, and use of library service?

3. What are the distinctive functions of library service at various levels of general education for (*a*) school youth, (*b*) out-of-school youth, and (*c*) adults?

4. What are the factors and conditions that should be considered in efforts to solve such basic problems as (*a*) the role of the library in the field of communication with special reference to the radio, the motion picture, and various media of learning other than books; (*b*) the relationship of the library to various activities of the school and to the reading program as a whole; (*c*) the techniques that may be developed for encouraging the intelligent use of various aids to learning provided through libraries and the disposition to use them?

5. What is being done and what should be done by the school board, the school administrator, the teacher, and the librarian (public and school) to apply these principles and to instrument these functions in the solution of perplexing issues in a co-ordinated library program?

6. What are the facilities, material as well as human, requisite to efficient library service?

7. What are the principal ways in which library services for general education may be organized through school libraries and through city, county, and state libraries?

8. What standards and techniques have been established and what additional ones are needed for evaluating the efficiency of library services in the light of their objectives?

9. What is being done and what should be done (through preprofessional and in-service training) to train the school board, the school administrator, the teacher, and the librarian to assume their appropriate individual and group responsibilities for instrumenting these functions?

10. What further research is necessary to increase the effectiveness of library service in the attainment of the objectives of general education?

II. Scope and Organization of the Yearbook

The scope of the Yearbook has been determined largely by the foregoing questions. It has, however, been affected by three major considerations. First of all, the Yearbook has centered attention upon the library in the field of general education as contrasted with other types of technical, professional, and graduate education. No attempt has been made to deal extensively with libraries other than those connected with elementary and secondary schools and junior colleges; with libraries of teachers colleges, liberal-arts colleges, and universities which train teach-

ers and library personnel; and with public libraries in their relation to schools, out-of-school youth, and adults engaged in certain aspects of adult education.

In the second place, the Yearbook has been developed primarily for the clientele of the National Society for the Study of Education and of various library organizations. It has been prepared for school administrators at all levels of general education; faculties in teachers colleges and professors of education in colleges and universities; teachers in training; teachers in service; teachers and students in library schools; public librarians; school, college, and university librarians; and adult-education workers.

The library in its various forms has contributed to preparation for defense and in carrying on the war effort of the nation. It has supplied materials for use in vocational guidance, for training and retraining in specific occupations, for informing the public concerning all phases of civilian defense, and for maintaining public morale. Its performance in all of these areas has, in many instances, been significant. References to these aspects of library service have been made in many sections of the Yearbook, but no effort has been made to emphasize such service specifically.

The materials in the Yearbook have been presented in several sections and have been prepared by teachers and librarians representing many phases of education and librarianship. Section I, The Library as a Vital Agency in Education, places library service in the pattern of modern life. Section II, The Library in Action, presents examples of present-day library service in elementary and secondary schools, in junior colleges, and in public libraries. Section III, The School Personnel and Library Service, is concerned with the role of the pupil, librarian, teacher, and administrator in the effective use of the library. Section IV, The Nature and Selection of Materials, deals with the selection, acquisition, organization, and methods of using materials. Section V, Machinery for Implementing Library Service, discusses governmental control, internal administration, and standards of performance applicable to library service. Section VI, Preparation of the Staff for Effective Service, describes the training of teachers, teacher-librarians, school librarians, and principals and superintendents necessary to insure effective integration of library service and instruction. Section VII, Evaluation and Research, deals with the most recent methods of evaluating service in terms of educational objectives and points out problems for future research in the field.

III. Significant Trends in Library Service in General Education

In the course of the preparation of the Yearbook certain trends in library service in general education have been noted which, if continued and properly directed, give promise of greatly increasing the usefulness of libraries as educational agencies in the future. Four of these merit special consideration.

1. The concept of the library in formal education, particularly at the levels of the elementary and secondary school, has undergone significant change. This change is evident in many ways and affects the entire educational program. Books are considered as means of extending experience and as aids to thinking rather than solely as sources of information. The library is thought of as a functional unit of the school or of society rather than as a place or as a collection of books. Library materials are conceived of as materials of instruction and not merely as books or periodicals, and they include many new aids to learning such as pamphlets, maps, globes, pictures, slides, films, and sound recordings. The function of the librarian has likewise been differently conceived. The librarian, who formerly was frequently thought of as a technician or administrator concerned primarily with library housekeeping, is more frequently considered a member of the staff responsive to the interests of administrator, teacher, pupil, or other colleague or patron, and qualified to participate fully in the planning and accomplishment of the educational purposes of the school and of the community. Utilization of the library personnel and resources in the instruction of pupils in the use of library materials, in curriculum revision and planning, and in constant collaboration with teachers and administrators in defining and carrying out the objectives of the school has contributed greatly to the effectiveness of the educational program.

2. The importance of training designed to fit all members of the school staff for more meaningful use of library materials in educational situations has gained recognition in a steadily increasing number of instances. Formerly only the librarian was supposed to receive training relating to library use, and this was primarily concerned with the technical and administrative aspects of librarianship. It was only slightly related to the objectives of the educational program. Today the training of the school librarian includes professional courses in educational psychology, educational guidance, tests and measurements, curriculum construction, and other educational subjects, as well as courses in literature for children and

adolescents, book selection, reference work, and the technical aspects of administration. The librarian, like the teacher, is expected to know the educational objectives of the school and how to work co-operatively with pupils and staff in their attainment.

Fortunately, this new trend affects other members of the school staff. While teachers and administrators are not required to pursue professional courses in librarianship, they are made library-conscious by means of courses in children's literature, adolescent reading, materials for use in instruction, and school administration; through practice teaching involving the use of the practice- or laboratory-school library; through summer workshops; and through the growing body of literature dealing with the library and the school.

In junior colleges, in teachers' colleges, and in the lower divisions of liberal-arts colleges and universities, effort is also frequently made to bring the combined abilities of library and instructional staffs to bear upon the effective integration of library service and instruction. The movement in this area of teaching has not been so extensively developed as is desirable on account of the preoccupation of graduate schools with methods and materials for research rather than with methods and materials which prospective college teachers will employ in survey and other courses for Freshmen, Sophomores, and other undergraduates. The movement, nevertheless, has made definite progress during the past decade through seminars and workshops on the college library, through library councils, through speech, reading, and writing laboratories, and through college surveys which have given special consideration to the improvement of instruction at the college level through library use.

In the public library field similar attention is given to the training of the members of the staff who are concerned with work with children and youth, both in and out of school, and with educational advisory service to adults. The departmentation of public libraries on the basis of service to different groups or of subject specialization has grown out of the conviction of librarians that service of educational significance can be furnished only through staff members who are aware of the educational implications of the demands which their patrons make of them and of the means by which library personnel and materials may best serve educational ends.

3. The 1920's and 1930's witnessed the development and steady application of standards to school-library performance. In the two decades quantitative regulations gave place to qualitative, and qualitative are

now being supplemented by criteria by which the service or use of the library may be evaluated in terms of pupil behavior and the achievement of educational objectives. All three types of evaluation have emphasized the importance of (*a*) adequate collections of material to support the curriculum and to provide for free reading by pupils; (*b*) proper rooms and equipment to insure easy access to materials and library personnel; (*c*) provision in the school budget for the maintenance of materials and the operation of the library; (*d*) formal or integrated programs of instruction for students in the use of materials; and (*e*) library personnel competent to organize and direct service in accord with the concepts of the modern school.

4. The great advance which has been made in American education in the past four decades may be attributed in large measure to the application of the results of scientific investigation to educational concepts and procedures. The role of the library in general education has only recently been subjected to this kind of treatment. Fortunately library schools have, within the past decade, begun to develop programs of research in this field, and departments of education, which formerly largely overlooked this area of education as a field for investigation, have begun to give it serious consideration.[1]

IV. Problems in Library Development

The preparation of the Yearbook has not only revealed certain important trends of library development but has also revealed certain problems, the solution of which should be vigorously sought. Five such problems may be mentioned.

1. The first is in the field of the elementary school. Library service in elementary schools has lagged far behind that in secondary schools. Brown,[2] in his study of methods of supplying library service to public elementary schools in cities of over 10,000 population, found that, while many cities have provided excellent service through various means, 70 per cent of the personnel employed in the administration of the service are "teachers without professional training, clerks, students, and par-

[1] One hundred and two studies are summarized under the title "The Library in Education," by Helen L. Butler in the *Review of Educational Research*, XII (June, 1942), 323–35.

[2] H. W. Brown, *A Study of Methods and Practices in Supplying Library Service to Public Elementary Schools in the United States*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1941.

ents." In rural areas service is usually even less well developed or may be largely lacking.

2. The second problem is closely related to the first. It is the provision of library service, both public and school, for rural areas. Although the State of New York enacted legislation concerning the financial support of libraries more than a century ago and provided funds for their maintenance, minimum attention has been given to the provision of library service for the rural areas of the nation. These are the areas in which the number of children per one thousand adults is usually greatest and where one- and two-room schoolhouses are most in evidence. Of the 35,447,515 inhabitants of the United States who were not served by public libraries in 1941, 32,569,745 lived in rural areas. However, new methods of providing public library service in such areas have been developed since 1935 when 40,000,000 rural inhabitants were without such service. Provision of state aid, consolidations effected through county and regional libraries, and service made available through the W.P.A. have contributed to the reduction of this number and have brought into being new patterns of library organization and administration which, if more generally and intensively applied, would go far toward solving the problem. Greater use by teachers and rural communities of the library facilities which are available to them through city, county, and regional libraries, through state departments of education and state library agencies, and through agricultural and university extension divisions would likewise contribute to the solution of the problem.

3. From the chapters of the Yearbook which deal with the library in action in elementary and secondary schools, little intimation is given that library service to Negroes is very limited in those states in which separation of races in schools and libraries is required by statute. Disparity in teachers' salaries and in the amount spent per capita for school purposes for whites and Negroes has long been recognized, but it has not been emphasized that library service to Negroes is much more limited than are other educational opportunities. The provision of public schools is mandatory; that of public libraries, permissive only. Of the 774 public libraries in the South which supplied service to whites in 1939, only 99 supplied service to Negroes.[3] Information concerning library service to Negroes in southern schools is largely lacking, but where it is available it

[3] Eliza Atkins Gleason, *The Southern Negro and the Public Library*, p. 90. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941.

shows conclusively that the benefits of school and public libraries have largely been unrealized by Negroes in the South.

4. Exact data concerning the library resources of the nation are generally too incompletely reported to serve as the basis for effective study of library problems. The United States Office of Education has collected and published data concerning libraries since 1870, but it has experienced great difficulty in securing complete information concerning comparable groups of libraries over a period of years. Of the approximately 250,000 schools in the nation in 1934–35, slightly less than 50 per cent submitted reports concerning their libraries. In the compilation of data concerning institutions of higher education in 1937–38, only 1462 of the approximately 1700 colleges and universities supplied data concerning their libraries. Furthermore, many reports of state departments of education and of city and county school systems are not sufficiently broken down to give exact information concerning library personnel, expenditures, book stock, use, and other aspects of library service. If library service is to be subjected to the careful analysis essential to significant generalization, more exact methods of library reporting and measurement will have to be devised and applied.

5. Mention was made in the discussion of significant trends of the increasing emphasis being placed upon the training of all members of the staff of the modern school in order to insure maximum functional use of the library in the attainment of the school's educational objectives. While this development may very well be considered as a significant trend, it also constitutes a major problem in educational efficiency. It has been repeatedly made evident in the preparation of the Yearbook that the kind of understanding and co-operation of the staff which results in use of the library that is educationally significant is not nearly so general as it should be.

The reasons for this are obvious. The public school and the public library have developed as separate institutions in the United States. Librarians and teachers are usually trained by different departments in colleges and universities. They read different bodies of professional literature, and, too frequently, both groups have thought of the library in terms of its administration rather than of its use as an educational instrument. Standards for school libraries at first emphasized the administrative and technical aspects of library service. Later they stressed the acquisition of skills in the use of library tools and materials, and only recently have they been formulated in terms of resulting student behavior

and the attainment of educational objectives. Courses offered in teacher-training institutions dealing with school administration and educational publications treating of the same subject have been singularly deficient in the presentation of this latter aspect of the library's function. And, even in this day of the laboratory-school and the practice-school library, of the educational workshop, of the constantly revised curriculum, and of the nation-wide studies in teacher education, the co-operation of teachers and librarians at the elementary- and secondary-school levels has not been emphasized in these enterprises, all of which should be of a co-operative nature. While progress has been made in all of these respects, it has not gone as far as it should, because it is through understanding and co-operation in this area that a new major advance in elementary and secondary education may be effected.

V. Relation of the Library to the Objectives of General Education

The fundamental purpose of the library in education is to help attain the objectives of the educational program. The library is an integral part of the program; it cannot be set aside as a supplement to other educational functions and activities. Accordingly, the objectives of the library are actually identical with those of the educational program. This statement is true whether the library serves a professional college, a technical school, an elementary school, a junior college, or out-of-school youth. Since, however, this volume is concerned primarily with general education, we may expect the contributions of the library here considered to be pointed toward the objectives of general education.

During the past quarter of a century the statement of educational goals which has perhaps been most frequently quoted is the one prepared by the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association—the so-called "seven cardinal principles of education." These seven goals are: (1) health, (2) command of the fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, and (7) ethical character.[4]

A more recent classification of educational objectives is that adopted by the Educational Policies Commission as it considered the aims of education in American democracy. The commission identified four as-

[4] United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.* Bulletin of the Bureau of Education No. 35, 1918. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1918.

pects of educational purpose: objectives centering around the person himself; his relationship to others in home and community; the creation and use of material wealth; and socio-civic activities. The first area calls for a description of the educated *person;* the second, for a description of the educated *member of the family and community group;* the third, of the educated *producer or consumer;* the fourth, of the educated *citizen.* The four great groups of objectives thus defined are:

1. The objectives of self-realization
2. The objectives of human relationship
3. The objectives of economic efficiency
4. The objectives of civic responsibility[5]

One of the first tasks of the staff of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association was to discover the purposes of the thirty co-operating schools. It was found that the schools were concerned with ten major types of objectives:

1. The development of effective methods of thinking
2. The cultivation of useful work habits and study skills
3. The inculcation of social attitudes
4. The acquisition of a wide range of significant interests
5. The development of increased appreciation of music, art, literature, and other aesthetic experience
6. The development of social sensitivity
7. The development of better personal-social adjustment
8. The acquisition of important information
9. The development of physical health
10. The development of a consistent philosophy of life[6]

It is obvious that there are many common elements in the three foregoing statements; but regardless of the specific formulation most clearly applicable in any educational program, the library has a vital role to play in its realization. The provision of materials to implement the program is perhaps its most important contribution, but in addition it may be held responsible in a peculiar sense for at least two objectives: first, to develop in pupils those attitudes and habits of study which lead to the continuous use of such tools of learning as the library can provide; and, second, to develop in pupils the ability to use such tools effectively. The acceptance of these two objectives conflicts in no way with the identification of the goals of general education with those of the library. Actually these two purposes contribute directly to the goals of general education.

[5] Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy,* p. 47. Washington: National Education Association, 1938.

[6] Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study,* pp. 89–90. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

SECTION I

THE LIBRARY AS A VITAL AGENCY IN EDUCATION

CHAPTER I

SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL CHANGES AFFECTING THE LIBRARY

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A basic assumption underlying this Yearbook is that the school library at any level of general education is a vital element in the educational process, deriving its objectives from the society, the community, and the institution that it serves. It is assumed also that modifications in school curriculums made in response to social changes and to the controlling philosophy of the school will be reflected in the character of the library materials provided and in their administration and use.

The need at this time for a yearbook on the school library grows out of the fact that notable changes in American life have taken place during the last two decades. These changes have greatly affected the demands made on individuals, created vital social, economic, and political problems, radically modified the nature and scope of the education needed by all citizens, and notably increased the responsibilities of all agencies concerned with the education of children and adults. Some of these effects are temporary in character; others are permanent and call for radical readjustments in the scope and character of the services rendered by different social institutions. As a result, vigorous effort is now being made by schools and other agencies to determine how they can help individuals and groups to meet intelligently the numerous demands made upon them.

In response to these developments school-library service has greatly expanded during the last decade. The rapid increase in the number of libraries and in the types of service rendered provides striking evidence of their growth. Of special significance is their increasing effectiveness in enriching the lives of children and in promoting their growth and development. The fact is widely recognized, however, that the concept of the school library in many communities and the character of its services

lag far behind current needs. Furthermore, a surprisingly large proportion of schools are still without adequate library facilities. It is both timely and urgent, therefore, that a thorough and penetrating study be made of the role of the library in general education and of the methods by which its efficiency can be greatly increased. As a first step in such a project, this chapter points out important implications for school libraries of recent social and educational developments and of the broader conception of reading that has developed during the last two decades.

I. Implications of Recent Social Changes

In their illuminating survey of Middletown in the late twenties the Lynds secured striking evidence that American life was in transition. The number and rapidity of the changes that have occurred since their study has been greatly accelerated by the depression of 1929, by numerous industrial and political developments during the thirties, and by the entrance of the United States into the World War in 1941. These changes have created serious personal and social problems, have required many readjustments in occupational pursuits and in standards of living, have often developed a feeling of insecurity with resulting anxieties, and have caused many individuals to reshape their patterns of living.

1. Wide Information Required to Meet Personal Needs

As a result of the various changes that have occurred, the demand for wide information and clear understanding has increased rapidly. To aid in solving their problems, young people and adults representing every class in society have made extensive use during recent years of different sources of information such as the radio, movies, public forums, libraries, and print of all types. Studies of the extent of this trend and of the value inherent in it have led to at least two significant conclusions: the first is that the wide use of various agencies of communication is essential in maintaining an informed, efficient and well-balanced citizenry; the second is that a surprisingly large proportion of our adult population is not prepared to use to advantage the various sources of information that are now available. Furthermore, Lazarsfeld's recent study of radio and print[1] shows clearly that adults all too frequently have neither the interest nor the disposition to use print, or even the radio, in the study of the more serious issues faced today. Such findings raise vital questions con-

[1] Paul F. Lazarsfeld, *Radio and Print*. New York: Duell, Sloan, & Pearce, 1940.

cerning the basic functions which schools should render in a democracy. They also justify the conclusion that the boys and girls of this generation should acquire far broader interests and much greater efficiency in the use of the library and other sources of information than has been true generally in the past.

2. Penetrating Insight Necessary Concerning Social Issues

The importance of wide information and penetrating insight is further emphasized by the problems that grow out of vital changes in the structure and processes of society. During recent years, for example, life has become increasingly mechanized, the trend toward urbanization has continued, and corporate ownership has largely crowded out individual enterprise. Furthermore, the functions of government, particularly the federal government, have expanded until they touch all areas of life and every class of society. Interdependence among individuals and the agencies that serve them has developed rapidly and problems once considered of solely personal or local import are now intimately related to national and international issues. Again, many of the earlier social controls have broken down without being replaced by new codes and patterns of behavior. To understand what is taking place, to guide one's personal activities and behavior intelligently, and to contribute even in a small way to social progress, requires continuous study and the use of many sources of information. The current trend toward more complex forms of social organization indicates that these demands upon citizens will increase rather than decrease in the future.

3. Clear Understanding Needed of the Problems of Democracy

Closely associated with the foregoing facts is a growing concern for the preservation and improvement of democracy. History supplies striking evidence of the fact that this form of social and political organization depends for its very existence on an intelligent, informed citizenry. We are now passing through an unusually critical period in the life of the nation. During recent years conflicting social and political theories have been vigorously discussed over the radio, in the press, and through other agencies of communication. Some of the information presented has often been biased and designed to influence individuals unduly to a particular course of action or system of beliefs. As a result, young people and adults have faced the responsibility of studying current social issues deliberately, of distinguishing between fact and opinion, of identifying and discounting

propaganda, and of coming to reasoned conclusions concerning issues relating to democratic organization and procedures. If the citizens of tomorrow are to be qualified to help preserve and improve our form of government, they must acquire while in school an appreciation of the democratic way of life, a keen desire to aid in the solution of its problems, a broad acquaintance with sources of information, and ability to use these sources intelligently and critically in the search for truth.

Rapid progress in the directions indicated is complicated by the number and variety of sources of help that are now available. In the field of print alone difficulties are encountered because one cannot read all the books published, all the magazines available, and all the newspapers printed. Furthermore, since the purposes and values of printed materials vary widely, they must be selected in terms of the ends to be attained. Similar statements may be made concerning radio programs and motion pictures. For these and other reasons a much larger number and far more difficult choices must be made today than at any previous period in history. Ability to choose intelligently what one should read, look at, or listen to, comes to most individuals as a result of proper guidance throughout the period of general education, with systematic participation in purposeful activities that require discrimination in the selection of books and other aids to learning.

4. The Wise Use of Leisure Time Essential

Still another characteristic of contemporary life merits emphasis. The increasing use of machines in carrying on basic industries is resulting in more free time than formerly for many young people and adults. The postponement of the time, for example, at which boys and girls can enter gainful occupations provides a longer period than was available formerly for promoting their physical, social, mental, and spiritual development. The shortened hours of labor for millions of workers, excepting in periods of emergency, provide greater opportunity for home life, as well as for reading and other leisurely pursuits. The use made of free time thus created is of great significance in a democracy since it provides needed opportunity for enriching the life of the individual and for building a better civilization.

An important implication of the foregoing statement is that schools should stimulate interests among pupils that will enrich their lives daily and result, as they mature, in leisure-time activities of great personal and social value. It is essential also to provide adequate facilities and to re-

serve time during the school day for reading and other forms of recreation. The importance of library facilities at public expense is emphasized by the fact that a large proportion of the homes in most communities cannot provide either children or adults with the books and magazines or the physical conditions essential for recreational reading and for the study of personal and social problems. Any community which does not provide adequate library facilities, either school or public, or both, or which fails to make them available to persons of all ages is failing to meet one of its major social obligations.

5. The Implications of Social Changes

The foregoing discussion shows that as a result of recent social changes the number and complexity of the problems which young people and adults face have increased with great rapidity. In order to live lives that are personally satisfying and socially productive they must be broadly informed, must be sensitive to and keenly interested in contemporary problems, and must make efficient and discriminating use of every form of communication available—the radio, motion pictures, public forums, print. Furthermore, the right and obligation of each individual to participate in making decisions that affect his own and others' welfare and in helping to preserve and improve the democratic way of life were never greater than today. Similarly, the need of free access to libraries and to other agencies of information is far greater today than formerly. Such opportunities are as necessary to individual development and social progress as the free delivery of mail or improved means of transportation.

The fact that a majority of American communities do not have satisfactory school or public libraries limits the possibility of personal development and retards social progress. If these deficiencies are to be eliminated and future citizens are to be prepared to meet their obligations intelligently, at least three steps are essential: First, adequate library facilities for both children and adults should be established as soon as possible in thousands of communities where they do not exist today. This proposal harmonizes with the fact that America is once more becoming community conscious, and this implies a keen awareness of the needs of community groups and willingness to provide for them. Second, pupils at every level of general education should have continuous opportunity to use library materials in solving personal and group problems and in securing stimulation and enjoyment. Third, they should receive the various types of guidance necessary to meet their needs at each level of school progress

and to insure a high degree of independence and efficiency in library use by the end of the secondary-school period.

II. Significant Changes in Schools

Present concern about the school library is not limited solely to its function in preparing adults to solve problems intelligently. Of equal, if not greater, significance are its possibilities in contributing to the growth and development of pupils at practically all levels of general education. Accordingly, attention is directed next to important changes within schools that have specific implications for school libraries. Some of these developments have occurred in direct response to the social changes referred to above. Others are the result of recent modifications in the basic philosophy underlying school activities. In both cases, however, they exert tremendous influence on the role of the school library, on the nature and variety of the facilities needed, and on the type of pupil guidance called for.

1. Increased School Population

It is a significant fact that during recent years the period of popular education has been greatly extended and the number enrolled in high schools and junior colleges has increased rapidly. The percentage of youth of high-school age who are attending school increased during the last ten years from about 45 to 65. During the same period the number of students in junior colleges increased from 98,000 to 267,000. While these increases may be attributed in part to such factors as inability of young people to find employment and to changes in compulsory school laws, a growing recognition of the value of a broad general education in increasing personal and social efficiency is a factor of major importance. Whatever the causal factors may be in individual cases, schools now face the responsibility of serving the needs of a larger proportion of youth than at any previous period, excepting the peak years of the depression. Experience shows that the greater the proportion of pupils in school at any given period, the more diverse are their backgrounds, interests, ambitions, and needs. It follows that the instructional materials provided both in classrooms and libraries should be correspondingly broad in scope and varied in type.

2. Broader Concern for the Welfare of Individuals

Paralleling the increase in the size and diversity of the pupil population have come radical changes in the basic philosophy of both elementary and secondary education. Instead of defining their function primarily in terms of the mastery of subject matter, schools now recognize that

their major purpose is to promote as far as possible the all around development—physical, mental, social, and emotional—of the youth of this country. Equally important is the cultivation of the special abilities, interests, and ambitions of each child. Contrary to the views often expressed, this concept of the school does not decrease the importance of appropriate subject matter or the need for library facilities. It does, on the other hand, help to clarify the purpose and character of the school experiences provided and greatly increases the demand for many aids to learning. These changes are based on respect for personality and a broad understanding of the role of the individual in a democratic society. They have been accelerated recently as a result of studies of the characteristics and needs of individuals, the course of their development, and the conditions under which learning takes place most effectively.

The new philosophy, while seeking to promote the maximum development of the individual, aims definitely to prepare him to live effectively and creatively in a democratic society. In its broader aspects this implies healthful living, civic efficiency, vocational competence, efficient home membership, and the profitable use of leisure. Because of recent world developments the need of cultivating the insights, understandings, interests, attitudes, and patterns of behavior that characterize a free people has assumed new significance and become increasingly urgent. Experience teaches that the ends sought result from practice as well as precept, and can be acquired best by growing up in democratic institutions and by participation in the activities involved in democratic living. A second urgent need is to prepare the youth of this generation to participate intelligently in building a more stable and finer civilization than has yet been attained. This involves not only a growing acquaintance with our social heritage, but also a broadening understanding of current social, political, and economic problems. To provide adequately today for the varied needs of pupils requires many new units of instruction, a notable increase in the amount and variety of reading material available, and continuous opportunity throughout the period of general education to use them efficiently in the study of personal and social problems, in satisfying interests, and in securing pleasure during leisure hours.

3. The Reorganization and Enrichment of the Curriculum

In order to attain both the individual and the social aims of the school, important changes have occurred in the types of courses offered and in the organization of curriculums. In elementary schools much experimentation has been carried on with various types of curriculums, char-

acterized by the wide use of problems, projects, activities, or units of experience. Furthermore, individual assignments and supervised study have become increasingly prominent. Likewise the opportunity for free reading has been greatly extended. The guidance provided is based on a clear recognition of the importance of purpose and motive as a driving force in the lives of pupils, the need for vigorous participation in learning activities, and the importance of cultivating initiative and independence in all school activities. The statement should be added that growth is far more rapid and the results much more satisfactory when pupils participate regularly in formulating purposes and in planning the steps essential to insure growth and self-realization. Providing for the varying backgrounds, interests, and needs of pupils requires both work-type and recreational reading materials that relate to numerous problems in a given field and to many aspects of each problem studied. The materials selected should represent various levels of difficulty, corresponding to the wide range in reading ability of the pupils in a group. Furthermore, the selection of appropriate material should be the joint responsibility of teachers and librarians, based on an intimate acquaintance with the pupils to be served and the intellectual resources available.

At the junior high school level additional innovations include exploratory courses, efforts to integrate the work in different subjects or fields, and experiments in new types of curriculums. At the senior high school and junior-college levels, notable innovations include survey courses relating to modern social problems, foreign cultures, contemporary art and literature, and humanized general science. Some of these changes spring from a desire to provide learning activities that are of maximum significance to pupils; others arise from a recognition of the fact that curricular offerings have often been so highly specialized that pupils fail to recognize important relationships inherent in them. Of major importance is the fact that most of these developments call for the wide use of different aids to learning and a greater abundance of printed materials of various levels of reading difficulty. They center in the library, rightly called "the heart of the school," from which they are distributed to classrooms and laboratories. In many schools various types of rooms for conference, study, and browsing have been added to the library in order to facilitate the use of reading materials by individuals and groups. Never before in the history of education has the library held such a vital and prominent place in school activities as it does today. Never before has it cooperated in as many types of school activities as it does today.

4. Use of Library Materials Varies with School Program

A study of current practices reveals the additional fact that variations in school programs are reflected in the demands made on pupils. At one extreme are schools which still limit the study activities of pupils to one or more specific textbooks in each subject. The function of the library in such cases is to provide a limited amount of supplementary material to which the teacher may refer and to organize a recreational reading program which, as a rule, has little or no relation to the work carried on in classrooms. In other schools, a basic textbook is supplemented by the wide use of library materials to insure a broad understanding of the topics or problems studied. Clearly, one of the important objectives of the library in such cases is to make these supplementary materials readily available. This means very close co-operation of teacher and librarian in discovering materials that are relevant and adapted to the varying abilities of the pupils. To facilitate their use, they should be catalogued and arranged skilfully, and they should be provided in sufficient quantity so that pupils are not handicapped in gaining access to them.

In some of the newer courses little or no use is made of basic texts. Breadth of understanding or the intensive study of particular problems, or both, may be emphasized. Obviously, the library has a particularly heavy responsibility in such cases. Books in great variety and of various levels of difficulty are essential to the attainment of educational goals. The very diversity of the materials that pupils should consult implies the need for a high degree of efficiency in locating and using them. It follows that broad and efficient training in library usage and in the techniques of practical bibliographical research is indispensable. Such training not only greatly increases the pupil's efficiency in study activities but also prepares him as he matures to attack an ever increasing range of personal and social problems. What has just been said is particularly applicable to units or courses based on contemporary life. The peculiar nature of the problems in this area is indicated in the following paragraph.

Here the emphasis is definitely upon current affairs, and the magazine, pamphlet, government document, and even the daily newspaper may become basic instructional materials. The world of today becomes the student's laboratory, and its reflection in today's print becomes his textbook. Materials on national and international developments, and local and state issues, take on primary importance, and the library must see that they are provided for faculty and student use. Clearly, the librarian who conceives his function merely as caretaker and

disciplinarian cannot hope to keep pace with the needs of the classroom. His relations with the faculty must be close enough to permit a thorough understanding of course objectives, so that appropriate measures may be taken to acquire such materials as will bring the teaching process to successful fruition.[2]

In order to render the most valuable service in enriching the learning experiences of pupils, the librarian must be thoroughly familiar with the objectives and scope of the curriculum of the school. Furthermore, he must work in close co-operation with other members of the staff in selecting essential library materials. Because school curriculums must be constantly revised in the light of new conceptions of teaching and changing social needs, two additional obligations assume importance. The school library should provide an adequate supply of the best and most recent professional literature available. Equally important is the need for library materials which may be used experimentally in developing new units of instruction and in improving and enriching those already adopted. These functions of the library have received only limited recognition in the past. In order that the library may serve its broadest function in enriching educational opportunities, the present generation of teachers and school officers, as well as students at the preservice level, must become thoroughly acquainted with library resources and techniques. This implies not only appropriate training on the part of prospective teachers and administrators but also tactful and persistent guidance by librarians among those in service. Under existing conditions the librarian's responsibility for training the staff is as great as for directing the library activities of pupils.

5. The Library's Responsibility for Nonreading Materials

A further characteristic of the newer types of school programs is that they make wide use of nonreading as well as reading materials in promoting learning. The former include pictures, slides, charts, dioramas, museum exhibits, recordings, the radio, and motion pictures. The use of a wide variety of these materials is justified by the fact that an understanding of some things is gained more readily through certain means than through others, that pupils differ in the ease with which they learn through any given medium, and that understandings gained in one way re-enforce or modify those gained in other ways. It follows that pupils

[2] Edward A. Wight and Leon Carnovsky, "The Library," *Reading in General Education*, chap. ix. Washington: American Council on Education, 1940.

should have ready access to all the aids to learning needed in the study of given units. In recognition of this fact the library service provided in many schools is being expanded to include a generous supply of nonreading materials. Furthermore, the reading rooms and stacks of school libraries are supplemented by exhibit cases and by conference and work rooms where materials appropriate for the study of specific problems may be assembled and used by individuals or groups. This concept of school-library service implies radical changes, as contrasted with traditional practice, in the extent and organization of library space and in the administration of library facilities.

6. Improved Guidance Programs for Pupils

The various changes described thus far have been accompanied in both elementary and secondary schools by the development of guidance programs that are far more comprehensive and more highly individualized than those provided previously. They seek to aid pupils in selecting programs of study in harmony with their needs and interests, and with their ability to acquire recreational reading interests that contribute richly to individual development and to the making of needed personal adjustments. The aim of such guidance is the development of capable, efficient, happy individuals and well-rounded, stable personalities.

Responsibility for this function of the school is not centered in any one teacher or officer. It is rather the obligation of every member of the administrative, teaching, and library staffs with whom a pupil comes in contact. This means that librarians should know pupils personally and should understand their interests, drives, abilities, and needs. They should also be thoroughly familiar with what the teaching staff and the guidance officers are trying to do for each pupil. In the light of such information they should co-operate fully with other members of the faculty in promoting the personal development of pupils as well as their scholastic progress. This implies that all members of the school staff should be motivated by the same broad ends. Similarly, they should all participate in the formulation of policies and in the definition of guidance procedures. This view of the librarian's function presupposes far broader training than has often been provided and calls for radical readjustments in her daily schedule and greater freedom from routine clerical duties.

7. Guidance Services for Adults

Finally, schools have recently expanded the scope of their activities to provide stimulus and guidance to adult members of the community.

The fact was pointed out earlier that adults are in urgent need of library material for use in the study of personal and social problems and for help in satisfying recreational interests. It is obvious that many types of reading materials are essential. If a community does not have a public library, the facilities of the school library should be expanded and used until a more adequate solution is found. Under these conditions the school library becomes in reality a community library and should remain open during evenings and week ends. This practice is particularly appropriate in rural areas. In communities where public libraries have been established, schools face the responsibility of bridging the gap that now exists between the school and public library. This may be achieved in part by making school libraries attractive to pupils, by insuring satisfying contacts with them, and by encouraging pupils to use public libraries in preparing some of their assignments and in the satisfaction of natural curiosities and interests.

8. General Effects of School Changes

The foregoing discussion indicates that the school library has recently assumed a far broader role at all levels of general education than has been true in the past. This is due to the increasing demands made on individuals in contemporary life, to the enriched curriculums now provided in schools, and to the effort to adjust instruction to the varying backgrounds, capacities, and needs of pupils. Of major importance is an abundance of reading materials and other aids to learning, selected in harmony with modern conceptions of education, with the purposes of the specific institutions served, and with the abilities and needs of pupils at different grade levels. This involves at all times the closest co-operation of curriculum experts, teachers, librarians, and school officers in the study of boys and girls to be taught and of the means by which needed growth can best be attained.

In order to facilitate the progress of pupils, reading materials must be readily accessible. This means that the concept of the school library should embrace classrooms, laboratories, conference rooms, study-rooms, recreational reading centers as well as the central reading-room. Obviously, each school faces the responsibility of a thoroughgoing appraisal at this time of the functions, organization, administration, and use of library space and facilities. In this connection the school administrator must assume active leadership. He must also acquaint the community with the educational and social services of the library and secure the fi-

nancial support needed for adequate library space, materials, and staff. The task is a challenging one and the advantages to be attained are very great indeed. Through intelligent work with children and adults, the school library has the power to increase greatly the efficiency of individuals and ultimately to lift the thinking of a whole generation to higher levels.

III. Changes in Prevailing Concepts of the Nature and Function of Reading

The services rendered by school libraries are affected not only by recent social and curricular developments but also by prevailing concepts of the nature and function of reading. That such concepts change at frequent intervals and are accompanied by significant adjustments in libraries is strikingly illustrated by certain developments during recent decades.

1. Changes in the Aims of Teaching Reading

Prior to 1910, for example, one of the dominant aims of teaching reading was to introduce pupils to selections of recognized literary quality and to cultivate appreciations of them. In fact, the reading problems most widely discussed from 1890 to 1910 on the platform and in the press related to methods of cultivating "the appreciation of good literature" and improving oral reading. It is not surprising, therefore, that during the early stages of its development the school library reflected to a large extent the literary ideal in selecting books and in directing the reading activities of pupils.

With the discovery about 1910 of the greater economy and efficiency of silent reading, major emphasis in reading classes shifted from the cultivation of appreciation and the improvement of oral reading to the development of fluent habits of intelligent, silent reading. Closely related aims were to develop interest in independent reading and the habit of reading widely for information and recreation. Furthermore, speed of reading and the number of books read, rather than their quality and influence on the lives of pupils, were emphasized vigorously from 1915 to 1930. During this period libraries increased rapidly in number and greatly extended the range of the reading materials provided. The influence of accessibility was also recognized and libraries began to supply an increasing number of books to classrooms where they could be used in connection with class projects or could be read during free periods for enjoyment and the satisfaction of curiosity.

Between 1925 and 1930, the poor reader was discovered. Within a relatively short time teachers of reading as well as specialists and research workers in the field of reading became deeply absorbed in the nature of his difficulties and in methods of increasing his reading efficiency. In fact, a surprisingly large proportion of the administrative provisions made for reading during the last decade in elementary and secondary schools has related to the needs of the poor reader. Furthermore, much of the professional literature in the field of reading has related to the diagnosis and remedial treatment of poor readers. Paralleling these developments, school librarians further modified their practices. They selected library materials of various levels of reading difficulty for use in the study of specific topics or units, examined more carefully than ever before the characteristics, abilities, and needs of pupils as a basis for selecting the right book for each child, observed the pupils while reading in the library in order to provide individual help when needed, and not infrequently assumed responsibility for remedial work with pupils.

Within the past few years a new era has opened in respect to the function of reading in school activities. As a result of significant changes in the basic philosophy of the school, increased emphasis is now directed to the ends to be attained through reading without neglecting essential reading attitudes, habits, and skills. According to this view, the types of growth desired and the changes to be produced in the reader assume major importance. These objectives aid in defining the purposes for reading and the kinds of reading material that will prove most valuable. If the library is to be of maximum service, the librarian must be thoroughly acquainted with what the school is attempting to achieve in terms of pupil growth and development, with the characteristics and needs of pupils at each stage of development, and with the kinds of guidance essential in attaining specific ends. Equally important is very close co-operation between teachers and librarians in formulating objectives, in selecting appropriate books for use in study and in recreational activities, and in developing procedures that will insure the greatest accessibility and the most efficient use of all library materials.

2. Changes in Prevailing Concepts of Reading

Closely related to recent changes in the dominant motives for reading are those pertaining to changing conceptions of the nature of reading and the basic processes involved. Whereas reading was formerly thought of primarily as the process of recognizing words and comprehending mean-

ings, it is now conceived largely as a form of experience that may alter the outlook of the pupil, deepen his understandings, modify his behavior, and promote the development of personality. According to this concept, the reader not only recognizes words quickly and accurately and apprehends clearly the essential facts or ideas presented, but also reflects on their significance, evaluates them critically, and integrates them with previous experience into definite thought and action patterns. According to this concept, growth in reading is not limited to the elementary-school period. Instead, ability to read intelligently and critically continues to develop rapidly throughout the period of general education and even later. It follows that pupils who come to the library may need guidance in reacting critically to the ideas apprehended, in clarifying thinking concerning the issues involved, and in reaching valid conclusions, as well as in selecting appropriate material to read and in securing a clear grasp of the author's meaning. Obviously, the guidance provided in libraries should be much broader in scope than that given earlier if schools succeed in developing a generation of readers capable of wise discrimination and intelligent self-direction. Without doubt classroom teachers should direct the study activities of pupils in the library to a far greater extent than in the past. The nature of the librarian's responsibility in the critical and reflective aspects of library reading should be defined co-operatively by the teaching and library staffs of each school.

3. The Relation of Reading to Other Aids to Learning

The broad concept of reading that now prevails emphasizes also the importance of the wide use of other aids to learning. It recognizes that ability to interpret what is read depends on the presence of related experiences in the mind of the reader and that the attainments of pupils at any period in their development is the product of all they have acquired through contact with reality and through all the aids to learning used by the school. As indicated earlier, the library is now recognized as a natural center for the collection and use of nonreading as well as reading materials. The adoption of this view of the function of school libraries greatly increases the demands made on librarians. Some of the questions which they, as well as other members of the school staff, face as this expansion occurs are: What aids to learning are most effective in promoting certain types of growth and in facilitating progress at different grade levels and among pupils of varying levels of capacity? What types of guidance do pupils need in using visual aids, motion pictures, the radio, and recordings

so that learning occurs more rapidly and effectively? Should reading prepare for, accompany, or follow the use of other aids to learning in the study of a given unit? How can librarians select, organize, and distribute the various aids to learning so that they will be of maximum use both in classrooms and in the library?

4. The Stimulation of Reading Interests and Tastes

A final and perhaps the most important problem of this chapter relates to the need for renewed effort on the part of teachers and librarians to broaden the reading interests of children and to elevate their tastes. This view is supported, first, by the fact that wide independent reading is essential if pupils acquire even a reasonable part of the informing and enriching experience that schools may provide. It is essential also if the guidance received in school is effective in starting youth successfully on the road to self-education. In the third place, recent studies show that the reading interests and tastes of the present generation of young people and adults are far from satisfactory. The need is urgent for continuous, vigorous effort to extend the reading interests of boys and girls and to stimulate preference for the better types of literature. To achieve the ends sought, teachers, school officers, and librarians must cooperate in studying the present and potential interests of children, in establishing library facilities and attractive reading corners in classrooms, in providing an adequate supply of attractive books of various levels of reading difficulty, and in utilizing the most effective methods possible in arousing interest and in elevating tastes.

IV. Conclusions

At least three significant conclusions are justified by the facts presented in this chapter. In the first place, the school library stands at the threshold of a new era in respect to the breadth and character of the services which it should render. The broader concept of its function that has been presented is a direct outgrowth of recent social and educational changes which make new and significant demands on children and adults.

In the second place, the basic and all-inclusive purpose of the library in general education is to contribute to the attainment of the objectives of the institutional program of which it is a part. Three distinctive purposes to which a library should make direct and significant contributions stand out impressively. The first is to help develop interests, attitudes, and habits of study which lead to the frequent, if not continuous, use of

the library in solving personal and group problems that arise in daily living. The second is to help develop the specific skills which insure the economical and efficient use of the library in attaining worth-while aims. The third is to contribute to the establishment of the habit of reading regularly for recreation, enjoyment, and stimulation and to the elevation of reading interests and tastes.

In the third place, it is essential that penetrating studies be made of the various services to be rendered in different types of schools, the most efficient organization and administration of library facilities and space, and the training of school officers, teachers, and librarians for their respective parts in this co-operative enterprise. The remainder of this Yearbook considers at length many of the problems that schools and communities face in reorganizing and improving library service in harmony with contemporary needs.

SECTION II

THE LIBRARY IN ACTION

CHAPTER II

LIBRARY SERVICE AT THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL LEVEL

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I. INTRODUCTION

Organized school libraries are now recognized theoretically as an essential part of the elementary school. Whether or not a library is provided in a given elementary school depends on the aims of the school, the purposes, plans, and experience of its superintendent, principal, and teachers, and on the general characteristics of the community. Where an elementary-school library is provided, its operation depends largely upon its librarian, book collections, and general facilities.

The ways in which libraries serve their schools can be seen most realistically in narratives describing the work of actual and typical situations. The reports of elementary-school libraries in action which are presented in this chapter have been taken from accounts written by teachers or librarians who compiled them from their diaries, desk calendars, records, and notes. Although these accounts are incomplete in that they do not describe all of the work of any single library, they report activities which occur regularly where children, teachers, and librarians make use of books and libraries.

II. CLASSROOM LIBRARIES PROVIDE MATERIALS FOR ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL STUDENTS

Since elementary-school libraries are in a stage of transition, the form in which the library service is administered varies. The libraries are in many stages of development, sometimes even within the same city. In many schools, where no librarian is employed, each classroom teacher performs some of the functions of a librarian; in other schools, one classroom teacher is designated to serve as the librarian although she may

have neither professional library training nor specified time for the work. In some situations, librarians trained both for teaching and for school librarianship divide their time between classroom teaching and library activities. In other instances, one librarian works in two or more elementary schools; or the high-school librarian has become the librarian for the elementary as well as for the secondary school. In some cities, a professionally trained school librarian is employed for each elementary school. In certain cities and counties a school-library supervisor or adviser is responsible for library development in all of the elementary schools of the system; such supervisors may be working with principals, teachers, and children to organize or to improve school-library service in schools not employing librarians, or they may be working where a librarian is employed for each elementary school.

Some elementary schools have both a central library and classroom collections; most, however, rely upon classroom libraries alone. The classroom libraries provide materials used to stimulate the reading of pupils, to answer questions which occur during class discussions, and to acquaint pupils with books of many kinds. The values of classroom libraries can be noted in the following description of the use of this type of collection in the first grade of the elementary department of the Waterville Central School of Waterville, New York.[1]

Each classroom of the elementary department of the Waterville Central School has a library consisting of approximately 275 titles. The teachers select the books in consultation with the high-school librarian. The high-school library and the public library are both generous in their help to the elementary school. With the increased interest in reading, the teachers have renewed acquaintance with their room libraries, have read more to the pupils, and have encouraged home reading. They have also felt that the reading of imaginative and humorous literature provides a counterbalance to the social studies program, with its strong emphasis on civics. The library in a third-grade classroom contains an interesting collection of animal stories which has been developed in connection with a unit on "Wild Animals of the Continents." A fourth-grade room is noted in the school for its Robin Hood stories and for its books of humor. A fifth-grade collection has grown with the unit on "The United States, Past and Present," while a sixth grade has stimulated lively interest in

[1] Contributed by Elizabeth Crumby, teacher of the first grade in the Central School, Waterville, N.Y.

reading through the use of books for pleasure reading, of periodicals, and of informal book reports.

The first-grade classroom library, with which this report is primarily concerned, contains almost two hundred books, all easily accessible to the pupils. These books are supplemented by the interchange of books between the first-grade classes and other grades in the building. Magazines, reference books, and pictures are borrowed from the main "upstairs" library as well as from the village library. Since three-fourths of the children in this grade are from outlying farms and come and go in buses, they have no opportunity to visit the public library after school. The teacher borrows books on her card and distributes them to these pupils. Those pupils who live in town take turns going to the public library with the teacher and selecting books which they think the rest of the pupils in their room will enjoy. All of the children, however, visit the village library at least twice a year, and they go to the main school library whenever there are displays of new books, hobby-shows, or story-telling periods.

Each afternoon the teacher reads aloud or tells stories for half an hour. Every day there is a period in which the pupils dramatize stories or listen to a story being told or a book being read. At this time they also select the books which they want to take home for reading aloud by parents or older brothers and sisters. New books are introduced by reading or telling parts of the stories and then letting the pupils "sign up for them." The stories of "Hansel and Gretel," "Rumpelstiltskin," "Jack-the-Giant-Killer," "Bluebeard," "Hop-O-My-Thumb," and "Snow White" have been told by the teacher and then dramatized by the class. Large murals depicting different incidents in the tales have been made, with all pupils participating.

Since the members of the first grade are greatly influenced by what their older brothers and sisters read, books borrowed from the second- and third-grade classroom libraries are sometimes read aloud. When the class was interested in *One Day with Tuktu* and *Wallie, the Walrus* (borrowed from the second grade) and in *Kersti and St. Nicholas* (borrowed from the third grade), children from these higher grades came to the classroom to tell the first-graders more about Eskimos and Dutch children and to describe and display their favorite books. An interest in Indians and cowboys resulted in borrowing books from the fourth-grade library and in visiting that classroom to see what the pupils were making and reading.

In these and in other ways the teacher widens the reading interests of the children so that the books play an important and provocative part in the lives of the pupils of the first grade. They become actively interested in learning to read and look forward to the time when they can read books themselves.

III. Teachers Use the Library Extensively

In the elementary school the teachers depend upon the library for numerous types of services. They obtain facts and materials necessary for the preparation of their instructional units; they bring their classes to the library for free reading or to work on assignments; they request that certain books be sent to the classroom for short-period loans; they find pictures and other illustrative materials for bulletin-board displays in the classroom; and, through the librarian, they keep informed about new books and other materials. Assistance to teachers emerges as one of the primary objectives of the school library in the following account of the Roosevelt Elementary School at Wauwatosa, Wisconsin.[2] It is also interesting to note in this report the type of administrative arrangement by which library service is provided to the schools. Co-operation between schools and with the public library constitutes one of the many kinds of library administration now existing in elementary schools.

Wauwatosa, Wisconsin, a residential suburb of Milwaukee, has a population of 27,769. Its two elementary schools, the Roosevelt School and the McKinley School, have enrolments of 431 and 377 pupils, respectively. The librarian divides her time equally between the schools. The Wauwatosa Public Library orders and catalogs the books. The school submits its book orders to the public library, which is allowed an extra appropriation by the City Council for elementary-school libraries; the books it sends to the school are designated as "permanent loans." Any strictly textbook material is purchased by the Board of Education and cataloged by the public library. School librarians are employed by and work under the jurisdiction of the Board of Education. Library classes are under the direction of the librarian, with teacher attendance entirely voluntary. The library also has charge of the supplementary sets and fee-books.

At Roosevelt School the library's week begins on Monday morning at

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[2] Contributed by Ruth Tarbox, librarian of the Roosevelt and McKinley Schools, Wauwatosa, Wis.

eight o'clock. When the eight-twenty bell rings the boys and girls enter the building, and the sixth-grade "library helpers" report for duty during the before-school period. There are three library helpers—one to check outgoing books, one to card returned books, and one to put books away and to take messages or deliver materials to teachers. The librarian looks over teachers' requisitions and fills as many of them as can be taken care of quickly. Typical requests include those for pictures of Eskimos, books on ants, a teacher's manual for *Here We Go*, and stories of Norway. Since time does not permit all of the requisitions to be filled during this period, the remaining ones are filed for later consideration. At a quarter to nine the library helpers return to their classrooms.

At nine o'clock the first library class arrives—thirty second-grade pupils who come for their weekly library period of half an hour. They return the books they have had out, take their places, and hear a new picture-storybook, Wanda Gag's *Nothing at All.* Books they can read are put on the tables and each pupil chooses one to take home for the following week. They write their names and room number on the book cards, come to the desk to have their books checked, and then return together to their classroom.

A third-grade group now comes for its library period. The procedure is similar to that of the second grade, except that this group goes to the shelves to choose books; and, instead of having a story told to them today, they spend the time in telling about their favorite books.

Before the next class arrives the art supervisor comes in to find what pictures, professional magazines, or books are available to help a teacher who plans to use Swedish design in her next art project. The librarian advises her and also shows her several new books with particularly fine illustrations. The supervisor borrows the new books for an art-appreciation lesson in the sixth grade that afternoon. The library editor, who is working on a library news article for the next issue of the school newspaper, comes in for help.

As the editor leaves, a fourth-grade group enters. Because of the size of this grade it is divided into two sections which have a library period of forty minutes each. Kipling's "The Elephant's Child" from the *Just So Stories* is read to them. Then the pupils go to the shelves to browse and to select books for home reading. The teacher has asked two of them to choose some new books for the library table in their classroom and another two to find whatever books, pictures, or pamphlets the library has about Switzerland. The librarian helps the individual pupils select books,

and she also makes suggestions to the "appointees" as they complete their special duties. The class returns to its room with good reading material for individuals and with its immediate reference needs satisfied.

During the lunch hour several teachers come to the library: one to see what is available in an easy third-grade reading set for her group; a second to talk over the question of compiling a bibliography of stories about the western states to correlate with a unit in the social studies; and a third to choose new books for her classroom-library table.

The afternoon is divided between two library classes, a fifth-grade and a sixth-grade group. The one-hour period of the fifth-grade class is divided into three parts: a brief introduction to and description of a book new to them, Malcolmson's *Yankee Doodle's Cousins;* a card-catalog game in which each boy and girl locates a book (given its author, title, or subject) by using the "index to the library"; and time to browse among and select books for recreational reading or to do assigned reference work with the help of the librarian.

After the sixth-grade class has been introduced to Carl Sandburg's *Abe Lincoln Grows Up,* it begins to learn how to make a bibliography, using Mott and Baisden's *Children's Book on How To Use Books and Libraries.* The librarian, with the teacher's help, has planned for each pupil to make a sample bibliography during the coming week.

The dismissal bell rings and the last library class departs. Library helpers come in to take over the checking, charging, and shelving of books. The librarian turns her attention to filling the teachers' requisitions, finding materials to meet the individual needs of boys and girls, conferring with teachers about book problems, preparing book lists, fixing bulletin-board displays, attending and participating in faculty or curriculum-planning committee meetings, or organizing material for the picture and pamphlet files.

IV. Pupils Use the Library as a Materials Laboratory

With the new instructional methods prevailing in the modern school, the development of new courses, the introduction of new types of course-content, and the increased emphasis on pupil activity in planning and performing classroom projects, the school library has become a laboratory in which pupils explore and discover. The following account of a morning in the library of Colfax School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, describes typi-

cal activities of that library and shows ways in which the pupils use it as a materials laboratory.[3]

In the Colfax Elementary School, Grades IV, V, and VI are scheduled to be in the library three periods each week. Of the three periods, one is for book circulation, one for reference work and for teaching library lessons, and one for pleasure reading. However, hard-and-fast rules do not prevail; a child may do reference work during any of the three periods, or he may turn to pleasure reading when a reference problem has been completed. Grades II and III come to the library once a week for story-telling and for the reading of poetry. The remaining "open" periods on the library's schedule are filled by those classes which have reached a place in their units where an extra reference period becomes necessary. For example, the pupils of Grade V B are ready to make a model of early Pittsburgh. Although the pupils have general ideas on the subject, each committee needs to verify facts, such as where the ferry crossed the river, where the first post office was located, and how tall the early buildings were. Since such purposeful reference work cannot be deferred until next week's scheduled reference period, the teacher arranges to bring the class to the library during an open period. Sometimes only the committees come to work with the librarian.

The integrated-activated curriculum is used in the fifth and sixth grades; that is, instead of having the pupils study entirely different subject matter in English, reading, geography, history, and nature study, the work in every subject field is planned around the social studies as the "core." This method differs from an "integrated" program in that the "activated" part gives the child an opportunity to put into practice what he has learned. The child's initiative is developed so that he uses what he has learned in some way. This does not imply that every unit must terminate in building with wood, tools, or clay; the culmination may be a booklet of stories, an original play, or the application of the knowledge obtained to some other project. The new program requires much reference work, which now becomes purposeful on the part of the pupil. Reference work no longer constitutes an assignment to be met in order to get a grade; now the pupil has a definite contribution to make to the solution of a stimulating and interesting problem. The library plays a vital part

[3] Contributed by Thusnelda Schmidt, librarian of the Colfax School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

in such a program. Committees and individuals have topics, questions, and problems which can be solved and completed only by using the resources of the library. The library thus becomes just as much a laboratory as any science room—dictionaries, encyclopedias, stereographs, pictures, maps, realia, pamphlets, and books (both fiction and nonfiction) constituting the tools for developing an idea.

The following brief account represents the activities in the library during a typical morning:

From the time the bell rings at eight-forty until nine o'clock any child may come to the library to exchange books, pay a fine, return books, look up the answer to a problem, browse among new books, examine exhibits, read a magazine, look through book lists for suggestions of good books to read, or share an experience with the librarian. Since the library does not have a "report class," the librarian has twenty minutes in which to fill teachers' requests for visual material and reference books or to prepare a preview of materials available for forthcoming units.

At nine-twenty the VI B girls come to the library for pleasure reading while the boys go to their swimming class. Most of the girls are already seated and reading their books when the librarian comes in from hall duty. For those who are still undecided as to what they want to read, the librarian makes suggestions. This informal reading guidance requires that the librarian know the child's interests and reading ability (and whether it has been overdeveloped or neglected) and also the content and difficulty level of the books in the collection. The first outside call for help comes from the art room. A pupil there wishes to model a clay pyramid. He needs facts about the Egyptian pyramids, pictures, and a floor plan. The library provides the answers to his questions.

At nine-forty-five the pupils of Grade V B enter the library with their teacher. They are ready to start on the unit about early Pittsburgh. Their assignment for this library period is to read anything that they can find about early Pittsburgh and to get ideas which will help the class to plan the outline of work to be followed for the unit.

At ten-forty-five the VI A's are eager to enter the library. This is their book-circulation period, and they want to see whether favorite titles have been returned. Before the period has ended, the pupils spend some time in describing to their classmates a book which they have particularly enjoyed.

At five minutes past eleven the VI B's come with their teacher to do reference work on a unit dealing with coal. The class is divided into com-

mittees and the name of each committee is placed on a library table. The children seat themselves according to their committees, and there they work to make their topic interesting and to find a unique way to present the material to the rest of the group. Both teacher and librarian are available for guidance and for instruction in how to use reference tools efficiently. The VI B class is the last class before lunch. During the afternoon the work in the library continues on somewhat the same plan.

V. The Librarian Guides the Reading of Students

The elementary-school library occupies a strategic place in the reading program of the school. Through informal conferences and conversation with pupils, through planned group projects, through effective displays and publicity, and through guided pupil activities, the librarian participates in the reading program. She helps pupils find reading materials for their academic and nonacademic purposes; she encourages the extension of their reading interests; she helps them develop good reading habits and an appreciation of literature; she helps them to understand, to interpret, and to evaluate what they have read. She knows the reading abilities of each pupil and brings the right book and the right child together. Since the pupils of the different grades represent different levels of mastery of reading, the school library has a wide range of materials of varying difficulty. The school librarian knows the books best suited to each child's interests and abilities. The functions of the school library as a reading center can be noted in the following description of the library in Stratford Avenue School, Garden City, New York.[4]

The faculty of the Stratford Avenue School believes that children learn best by doing, and they encourage the children to participate in the work of the school. Pupils are helped to meet and to solve their problems and to get along socially with other people so that they will be successful members of their community. The school advocates the belief that children need to express themselves through various media, such as art, craftwork, and creative writing; that the fullest possible development of each child must be encouraged and furthered.

The curriculum requires the use of many books and of other materials for teachers and children. The library thus becomes a service agency to

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[4] Contributed by Georgiana Maar, librarian of the Stratford Avenue School, Garden City, N.Y. Garden City, a Long Island village, has two elementary schools, each with a full-time librarian.

the school, helping the individual child in reading guidance and in reference problems, stimulating him to read extensively along many lines of interest, and showing him how to use many books to gain his information rather than to depend upon one or two textbooks. The library is open as long as possible and the pupils are urged to use it freely. All classes from the second through the sixth grade are scheduled for a regular half-hour library period each week. The pupils use the library period for browsing, free reading, library lessons, looking up material, story hours, or class discussions. The pupils in the first grade and kindergarten also visit the library at frequent intervals. In addition to the set schedule, groups may be scheduled for extra time; small groups or individual students are free to come at any time.

The following description of an average day indicates the variety of the library's program and of its usefulness to the pupils and to the teachers:

The librarian arrives at eight-thirty, followed by a few early-comers who have books to return or questions to be answered. The pupil assistants start their work; two take charge of the desk where they stamp and slip books, another two write the daily overdue-book notices, while two more become busy in the workroom, typing notices for teachers, pasting pockets and book slips, or doing errands or other jobs.

During the unscheduled half-hour from nine to nine-thirty many of the children come with requests or questions with which they require help. For example, a second-grade child brings a baby tree toad to show to the librarian. The science teacher has identified the toad, but now Alfred wants a book about tree toads to take to the teacher. Also, he wants to know what to feed it. A kindergarten teacher sends for a map of the United States. Her pupils want to see where Florida is because one of their classmates has just left for a month's vacation there. Two sixth-grade girls want to find pictures of different kinds of lamps—Betty lamp, Russian teapot lamp, kerosene lamp, and early electric lamp. A third-grade boy, seeking a picture of the Northrup Flying Wing, wants to know if the Northrup is faster than the Lockheed XP-38. Three fifth-grade pupils come to find out how people reckoned time in the early days. The book says Sparta won a decisive victory in 404 B.C. What did the Greeks call that year since they didn't know it was "B.C."? A sixth-grade science enthusiast has just looked up the definition of a molecule and he asks for help in understanding it.

The ungraded or remedial group arrives for a library period at nine-thirty. Since there are only ten children in this group, much help can be

given to the individual pupils by the teacher and by the librarian. Harry assumes responsibility for the desk while the rest go to the shelves for books. Jimmy wants stories about dogs and horses. Because of his limited reading ability the teacher helps him to make a list of books which he can read. John asks for another book like *Seven Diving Ducks*, a story with not too many new words but enough of a plot to hold his interest. The librarian assists Jean in finding a fairly long but not too difficult book. Since Jean's eyes are weak, the book must have good print. The period ends with the teacher reading aloud part of a story which she will finish later in the classroom.

At ten o'clock the fifth-grade group enters. Some of the pupils have reference work to do, while others have come for free reading. Teacher and librarian are both busy helping those who require aid. Raymond requests a "good book" to read. The librarian consults his book list in order to see what he has read, what he has enjoyed most, and what his reading ability is. His main desire is for a "funny book," preferably like *Freddy the Detective*, which is already on his list. His attention is drawn to some humorous animal stories, and from these he chooses one to take out; he then lists the others for future reading. The librarian suggests several other books that are slightly different in type and which will perhaps lead him to a different interest; these titles, too, go on his list. Other requests continue throughout the period.

A sixth-grade group scheduled for an extra reference period arrives at ten-thirty. These pupils are studying the Pacific area and want maps, information about flags, products, exports and imports, comparative sizes of various places, population statistics, transportation methods, and other facts about the countries in this area. Each pupil has his own question, and most of them need little guidance. They consult reference books, magazines, and vertical-file material, and use the card catalog to find books to take back to the classroom.

At eleven o'clock a sixth-grade group comes for a library lesson in which the pupils are finishing a work sheet on the card catalog. Those students who have finished the work sheet read or help the librarian with library work. The teacher selects a book from the special shelf which contains reading materials for the "Faculty Reading Club." This club, administered by the librarian, contains current books selected and paid for by the teachers. The library also has a shelf of professional books for teachers and parents.

A second-grade group arrives at eleven-thirty for its weekly library

period. Two sixth-grade pupils take over the desk work, releasing the librarian to help at the shelves. The teacher also helps the pupils to select books. In a few cases books are selected for pupils to take home to be read aloud by their parents. Toward the end of the period a story is told; this is frequently an old favorite which has been previously requested or a book recently added to the library. Since it was a boy in this group who brought the tree toad to school, today's story is Friskey's *Grandfather Frog, the Busy Loafer.*

Numerous pupils come to the library at one-thirty for various purposes. Requests arrive from teachers for pictures of ancient Greece and Rome, stories about early days in New York City and in New York State for the reading table in a fourth-grade classroom, illustrations on tin, a story of Colonial America for a sixth-grade teacher to read aloud, and a slide of the world.

At two o'clock a group of ten children come to work on a topic dealing with famous Americans. The librarian helps them locate material and then finds some books about American patriots for the teacher to use in the classroom. A few teachers come in to select books for their reading corners, to renew material, to arrange for a special library period for their class the next day, or to get material for their classes.

There are no assigned groups at two-thirty, but pupils come from their classes to work on their individual problems.

Although school is over at two-fifty, some children visit the library to get books or to finish working on class assignments.

When the children have gone, the librarian works on the many and varied tasks which must be done to achieve a smoothly functioning library. Then, too, there are plans to be made for the next day, display case and bulletin boards to fix, and records to keep. Occasionally parents come to select books to read aloud at home, to obtain material for parent discussion groups, or to get books which will help them to understand the school program or the problems of their children.

VI. The School Library Is a Socializing Agency

In addition to providing materials, helping teachers, and guiding reading, the elementary-school library serves other educational functions. One of these is participation in the school's program to prepare pupils to assume social responsibilities in a democratic society. Desirable attitudes toward public property and toward the rights of the group are developed in the library. Pupils help to perform many of the library duties

themselves and learn how to take responsibility and to work with others. Effective library instruction trains the pupils to use a library and its resources so that they may know how to seek and to use them in their high-school and adult careers. Like the preceding descriptions, the following account of the functions of an elementary-school library in Long Beach, California, refers to library activities which contribute to this development of the individual pupil.[5]

The elementary-school libraries in Long Beach form an integral part of the whole instructional program. The school selected for description as being representative of the system has an enrolment of seven hundred pupils. It is located in a typical downtown section with a transient population. The school has seventeen teachers, a kindergarten director, an assistant, and a librarian who is in the school four days a week. The school program is modern in concept. Traditional grade levels are disregarded. The school aims "(1) to group together pupils who will be able to live, work, and progress together happily under conditions permitting the fullest possible development of the individual; (2) to subordinate traditional grade standards and emphasize the growth and development of each individual child; (3) to promote the mental health of all pupils; and (4) to encourage flexible methods of grouping and regrouping." The school library, located on the main corridor of the building, seats forty-six pupils and has a collection of three thousand books. In addition to having a regular class schedule, the library is open to all pupils before and after school. The librarian is a trained children's librarian with several years of teaching experience.

A typical day for the librarian opens with a request from a teacher who greets the librarian as she enters the school building in the morning before the pupils arrive.

"Miss Jay, we will be studying sugar today. Do you have some books you could send to the room this morning?"

School starts at nine o'clock; the library opens twenty minutes before that time.

"Miss Jay, I have just finished *Call It Courage.* Will you help me find another good book like it?"

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[5] Mrs. Edwina S. Hicks, Supervisor of School Libraries of Long Beach, California, contributes this account of one school library to show how the libraries function in the elementary schools of that city.

"Please look at this book I had out. My baby brother tore it. How much will it cost to mend it?"

A teacher enters. "I would like to use that book about rhythms and dances this morning. Is it in?"

"No," replies the librarian, "but perhaps we can get it back in time for you."

Second teacher: "I want to see what Indian pictures you have."

Still another teacher: "I have a bibliography on Latin America issued by the United States Office of Education. Will you check it for the books we have in our library?"

The teachers are assisted, the books on sugar are dispatched to the classroom, and the rhythm-book is located. Children return books and select others to take out. The librarian helps some children while others find their own materials.

The first class, made up of twenty-one children at the second-year level, arrives for its weekly twenty-five minute library period. (The intermediate grades have a forty-minute period.) The group comes to the library unaccompanied by the teacher, who remains in the classroom with a part of the class scheduled to come to the library during the next period. The librarian on this day reads a story to the class. (This part of the program varies from week to week and it also varies with the group. Sometimes stories are told or picture-books are used effectively. Instruction begins with looking at picture-books purposefully as prereading preparation, and it progresses into the more complex skills as the child advances.) After hearing the story, the children browse among the books and choose the ones they wish to read. The librarian helps each pupil to select books which are within his range of interest and not beyond his reading level. She knows the characteristics and the capabilities of each child in so far as it is possible in a school of this size. A transient population increases the difficulty, but the librarian has developed techniques which reduce this problem.

At the charging desk sit the pupil assistants, usually two. One stamps the books while the other prepares the incoming books for circulation again. These pupil assistants, or "library helpers," are selected by the librarian, teacher, and principal. (In certain situations every child has his turn to serve at the desk.) Usually two from each class serve for one month. The librarian gives them special training, to which they respond admirably and from which they gather experience in service, accuracy, and library procedures. This activity forms an instrument for guidance

and for prevocational sampling; it has been used successfully with superior children and with certain maladjusted cases, but, of course, it is not limited to these two types of pupils.

During this period several pupils from other classes, particularly the upper grades, have come to the library for special reference work; some find their own information, while others need assistance. Those who entered during the story-telling waited until the librarian had finished before asking for help. However, instances occur when interruptions become necessary. In this school an effort is made to teach the child how and when to interrupt, because this forms a real situation in which judgment can be developed. At the close of the period the children arrange their chairs and make the library ready for the next group. As they leave the room, the pupils show the librarian or her helpers that they have had their books properly charged.

What are the aims underlying all of the library periods in this school? The teacher and the librarian together determine the objectives of the library period—free reading, assigned reference work in connection with some particular classroom activity, or instruction in the use of books and libraries. The experience gained in the library and the books selected there are integrated with the work of the classroom. The teacher always shows interest in what the pupils have secured from the library. Occasionally, if books too difficult or too easy have been selected by the overambitious or the lazy reader, she suggests another selection.

The books obtained from the library may be used for information, silent reading, dramatization, or oral reading. Formal book reports are discouraged and informal discussions encouraged. For oral reading a child may make a selection from his book and read it to the group. To add interest, he may endeavor to "sell" the book to his classmates; this technique proves popular with both teachers and pupils because it stimulates interest in selection and encourages the pupils to do their best in reading aloud. The teachers use library materials in many ways for reference. Books are borrowed from the library to use with their units; groups of children are sent to the library to look up special topics; or the whole class may be sent on occasions other than the regular library period. During class discussions, when questions arise which cannot be answered by the group or from materials in the classroom, a pupil is sent to the library to find the answer to the problem.

When a class is ready to begin reference use of the library, arrangements are made to give instruction in the use of encyclopedias and simple

reference tools. Copying from reference books is discouraged. Note-taking, except for statistical data and perhaps difficult words, is used cautiously. Attention to comprehension and retention receives more stress. The teachers participate in training the students to acquire good library habits. Taking responsibility for the care of books and for their prompt return forms part of the training of the child. The principal also works with teachers, librarians, and pupils to get the utmost from library resources, and she arranges the library's schedule so that optimum results may be obtained. Each class is divided into groups—the primary grades usually into three groups and the intermediate into two. The sections requiring the most guidance, such as the primary and the slow-learning pupils, are assigned to the library in smaller units in order to permit both teacher and librarian to work more intensively with fewer children; for example, the library class which has been described in this section consists of three groups. Groups 1 and 2 were in the library while the remaining group, the slowest pupils, were in the classroom working with their teacher. During the following period the groups were reversed. The upper grades and the more self-reliant pupils are scheduled in larger groups. The library's schedule, however, remains flexible. When it becomes desirable to shift groups or when a teacher wishes to send her whole class to the library, adjustments can be made readily.

VII. The Librarian Works with Pupils as Individuals

Throughout the descriptions of elementary-school libraries in this chapter, one of the dominant emphases has centered in the function of working with pupils individually so that their needs, interests, and abilities can be determined, satisfied, or developed. Because of variations in school populations, this aspect of school librarianship takes different forms in different schools. The following account of the work in the library of Mitchell School, Denver, Colorado, shows how one library works with a school population that is particularly challenging.[6]

Mitchell School has an enrolment of approximately one-thousand pupils, of whom approximately one-third are Spanish-American; many of the pupils come from families who have entered the state to work in the sugar-beet fields. Negroes constitute almost one-tenth of the school population. The majority of the pupils might be classed as underprivileged children from families in the lower economic levels. About 35 per cent of the children come from families who receive State Aid to Dependent Children

[6] Contributed by Mrs. Antje Long, librarian of Mitchell School, Denver, Colorado.

or other relief aid; 50 per cent are supported by the parent's employment on a W.P.A. project; and 10 per cent come from families earning less than $1,300 per year. Obviously, the supply of good books in these homes is meager, and the opportunity to become interested in and acquainted with good literature must be provided by the public and school libraries. The limited experience of many of the children and the language handicap of some necessitate the frequent use and display of pictures as a basis for understanding. These conditions also create a need for easy reading material in every field served by the library.

Beginning with Grade I A and extending through Grade VI A, the school is organized into sixteen platoons, with the result that approximately eight hundred pupils are scheduled to the library in the same way that they are scheduled to classes in social science, gymnasium, music, and other subjects. With periods of thirty-seven minutes in length, eight classes come to the library daily; each child thus reports to the library with his class on alternate days. Entirely supported and controlled by the school district, the school library, with a book collection of fifteen hundred individual titles in addition to encyclopedias, pamphlets, and mounted pictures, has no connection with the public library other than mutual help, co-operation, and understanding. The school-library books are kept for use within the classrooms and the school library. They do not circulate among the homes as do those of the public library. The nearest branch of the public library, five blocks from the school, encourages the visits of the children and the borrowing of books. Stimulation of this activity is carried on in many ways by the teachers of other subjects and by the librarian. To familiarize the students with the public library, the school librarian takes classes to the public library branch annually, and on occasion she meets children there after school hours and helps with book selection and orientation.

To aid the librarian in her reading guidance, the classroom teacher's estimate of a child's reading grade is kept with his name on the library seating-chart; a notation is also made of his reading-test grades and intelligence-test scores. From Grade III A on, the children themselves keep a written record of each title they have read, and these records are cumulated through the year and also from year to year. The records are used to evaluate the amount, the quality, the range of interests, and the continuity of the reading done. They are also used to help the child remember his book and to continue with it until he completes it, to check on the time spent in the reading of the book, to provide a means for discussion

with the child about the reading he is doing, and to furnish data for conferences with other teachers about the progress of the child.

The planning of activities for the library classes has as its chief purpose the cultivation of the pupil's growth and pleasure in reading and the constant and careful guidance and stimulation of his reading interest; for this reason, stories and poems are presented in appreciation periods and the children are encouraged to talk about what they are reading. Library skills are not taught until some information is needed in the library or in the classroom. Hence, about three-fourths of the time in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades is spent in individual reading and reference work; in the third grade the proportion is three-fifths of the time for individual reading, while in the first and second grades still less time is spent in reading and a greater amount in story-telling, reciting poetry, and learning the ways of the library. The librarian keeps informed about the units of work the children are doing in the classrooms. As a result, the work in the library with individual pupils becomes meaningful and effective.

VIII. Summary

In many elementary schools, children are reading with genuine interest. In classrooms and libraries, boys and girls are learning facts and opinions from print and from pictures. They are finding out how to use reference books and library tools with skill; they are mastering certain study techniques and becoming familiar with some of the recognized sources of information.

The library in action in the elementary school is effective in stimulating reading, in providing appropriate materials, and in helping children to learn how to use books and libraries. With changes in school objectives, in courses of study, and in teaching methods has come the realization that the library forms an active teaching agency and an aid to learning and to teaching and that the library is as essential at the elementary level as at the secondary and college levels. The elementary-school library is in a strategic position to prepare children for library use throughout their entire lives.

While the need for elementary-school libraries is quite generally understood, provision for developing central libraries in elementary schools has progressed slowly. A variety of factors has contributed to the slow expansion of elementary-school library service: limited space in school buildings, insufficient funds, lack of librarians, or lack of understanding of the potential values of library service in elementary education.

From the preceding accounts of school libraries and from other reports pertaining to the organization and management of libraries in elementary schools, several significant tendencies can be noted. Increasingly, children are playing an important part in the planning and operation of elementary-school libraries. This activity has been encouraged and developed by schools because of the values derived from having children responsible for essential work and from the learning that results from doing.

Librarians are recognizing that many potential library values can become active and meaningful for children only through the understanding, the knowledge, and the efforts of classroom teachers, teachers of special subjects, supervisors, principals, and school superintendents. The achievement of excellence in library service depends in part upon the teacher's enthusiasm for reading, her knowledge of children's books, and her use of reference and library tools; upon conferences between teachers and librarians; upon classroom planning for children's library visits and for classroom reports or discussions following library visits; and upon friendly, generous co-operation between the librarian and the other teachers in the school.

School and public library co-operation seems to be increasingly effective and intelligent. This may be attributed to a growing understanding of school needs and a widening recognition of the value of the library-teaching program at the elementary level. Several examples presented in this chapter support the following assertion of the joint committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association: "When the schools and the public library are working together most effectively, the teachers, the public librarians, and the school librarians are keenly aware of the work the others are doing and of the possible services that they can render to one another."[7]

The clearer understanding of individual differences, the utilization of test results, the increased knowledge of children and of child development, and the changes in teaching objectives, teaching methods, books, and other materials are bringing improvements in the resources, the organization, the administration, and the teaching program of elementary-school libraries.

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[7] National Education Association and the American Library Association, Joint Committee. *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together in School Library Service*, p. 63. Washington: National Education Association, 1941.

CHAPTER III

LIBRARY SERVICE AT THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL LEVEL

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The nature of library service in secondary schools is most readily understood when translated into pupil, teacher, and librarian activities. This chapter, therefore, presents several first-hand descriptions of school libraries in action in communities where the objectives, basic philosophy, and financial support of the schools cause variations in methods and services. Each school and library described is engaged in the process of educational change. No one of them has attained all its goals or entirely fulfilled its accepted role in the community. These descriptions must, therefore, be taken as merely indicating directions of growth and efforts to progress toward recognized ideals.

Library service is fortunately not a question about which American educators are merely talking. In various parts of the country groups of administrators, librarians, and teachers are demonstrating in action how well-organized library services help to provide pupils with a program which is an active apprenticeship for life. The movement toward adequate provision of such service has been widespread and many-sided. Five schools, working in diverse regions, have been selected as examples because their libraries reveal their implications vividly. These libraries are typical of hundreds of others which are emerging wherever educational progress is evident.

I. MANY QUESTIONS ARISE IN THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

We may begin with Peekskill High School, a school of 275 pupils in a New York industrial town with a large foreign element among its 17,000 inhabitants. The school staff has made a continuous effort to adapt the schools to the changing times and the local situation. The school library is looked upon as one of the agencies which can help pupils realize a richer life and eventually raise the standards of community living.

The following narrative[1] reveals the librarian of this school working closely with individual pupils on their daily problems. This is part of the guidance program of the school. Successful outcomes depend upon the librarian's knowledge and understanding of the pupils' interests, drives, abilities, and needs, and of the ways in which the resources of the school and community library can be used to satisfy and develop them. Her skill in handling the steady flow of unforeseen requests is a part of the answer to the school's responsibility for the satisfactory development of the pupils.

With the drop of a pencil many things can happen in a school library. It was exactly ten o'clock when Miss Hastings dropped her pencil in the Peekskill school library. She noticed the time because she had just initialed a pass for Tommy, and experience had taught her that it was a wise precaution to note the exact minute that Tommy was turned loose in the corridors. As she resumed her work on the list of novels about family relations for the class in homemaking, the pencil slipped from her grasp and rolled under the desk.

A girl's voice interrupted her groping search for it. "Miss Hastings, I'm giving a party tonight and I need a bunch of games to play—new games, you know, really keen ones. I tried the catalog but I can't seem to find just the thing."

After a search of the shelves from which Muriel turned away with "just the thing," Miss Hastings found George waiting to ask her for a nonfiction story. This contradiction in terms was no puzzle to the librarian. It meant that George had been required to report in English class on some nonfiction title, and he wanted the easiest possible reading.

"What books have you read that you really liked?" inquired Miss Hastings, starting toward the biography section.

"Oh, I like funny stuff. I liked *The Cat's Paw* and the Jeeves stories."

Miss Hastings halted at the essay shelves and took down volumes of Benchley, Leacock, and Day. As George moved away with them, her eye, sweeping the adjacent shelves, fell upon Guiterman's *Lyric Laughter*. This had not been circulating as it should. A little advertising, she thought, would start a demand for it. She made a mental note to include it in a book talk soon.

This time she got nearly back to her desk when Harry accosted her.

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[1]This description of a few hours' activities in the Peekskill (New York) High School Library has been prepared by the librarian, Emma L. Patterson.

With desperation in his voice, he exclaimed: "Miss Hastings, may I bother you about my senior essay topic again? It's brain surgery, you know. I've looked in the encyclopedia and the catalog and the *Readers' Guide*, but I can't find much about it. And Miss Warren says if I can't find any more material, I'll have to change my topic. And I just can't do that. It's the only thing in the world that I care about. So what shall I do?"

Miss Hastings stood in thought. "Perhaps you'll have to expand your topic, Harry," she suggested. "Look up the whole subject of surgery and if that includes too much, narrow it down afterward. You might even find some phase of surgery that would appeal to you more than brain surgery."

Harry scorned to entertain such a radical idea as that he should ever swerve from his selected goal, but he agreed to the suggestion of expanding his topic and went off to act upon it.

Just as Miss Hastings reached her desk, the bell rang to end the period. The children swarmed out. Another crowd assembled. Passes must be signed. Miss Hastings looked vaguely about for her pencil, borrowed one, returned it, and then took up the business of installing a new assistant at the charging desk. Gradually the appearance of confusion in the library lessened. Pupils settled down with the books or magazines they had selected. Miss Hastings at length returned to her desk.

Then Anne rushed up with glowing eyes. "Oh, Miss Hastings, that was positively the best book I ever read," she exclaimed, laying down a copy of *Pepys' Diary*.

The librarian smiled to herself, thinking how every book that Anne read was at the time the "best yet." "I thought you'd like it," she replied. "It's one of my favorites too."

"I just love books that make you feel you are really living in other times and places," said Anne, and then half apologetically, "Sometimes I get almost frightened thinking I'll never have time to read all the books that I want to read."

Miss Hastings chuckled. "You never will, Anne," she remarked, "because, to have read all you wanted to, you must have lost your curiosity about life; and that will never happen to you."

"Well, what shall I read next?" Anne inquired, rather impatient of the philosophizing.

"I think you are ready for *Cellini's Autobiography*," Miss Hastings decided.

Best of all her day she liked these conversations with Anne, but now, as usual, they were interrupted by the first of a succession of questions.

"Miss Hastings, may we use your office to play off these Shakespeare records?"

"Miss Hastings, what does it mean in *Who's Who* when it says 'ed pub schs'?"

"Miss Hastings, here are the book plates that the art class has been making for the library."

"Miss Hastings, Mr. Lyons wants a picture of that statue, Christ of the Andes."

"Miss Hastings, which of these books on my history list would I like the best?"

"Miss Hastings, what should I look for in the catalog to find some more books like *Beat to Quarters*?"

"Miss Hastings . . . ."

"Miss Hastings . . . ."

The flood of questions finally ceased. Miss Hastings returned to her desk and sank into her chair. What had she been doing? Oh yes, the list for homemaking. Her pencil, where was it? At once her memory furnished her with an exact reconstruction of the instant when the pencil had rolled to the floor. She glanced at the clock. Twelve. Two hours gone, she mused.

Miss Hastings picked up her pencil and resumed the work she had begun two hours earlier.

II. Librarian and Teachers Plan for Library Use

Manheim Township Junior-Senior High School lies in the Pennsylvania Dutch farm district. It is a rural high school which has modern, sophisticated children from the suburban homes of business and professional parents mingling with children from very simple rural homes. The main objectives of this school and that of the high school at Peekskill are identical—the education of boys and girls for intelligent participation in a world of unpredictable situations. Each provides opportunities through its library for studying, searching, challenging, questioning, doing, watching, and listening.

The following report[2] from the Manheim Township Junior-Senior High

[2] Jane Gray, the librarian of the Manheim Township (Pennsylvania) Junior-Senior High School, has prepared this description of the activities which take place in her school library. The school has an enrolment of about 650 pupils.

School presents a broader view of the school library in action. Teachers and librarian in this rural district-school are apparently working together effectively in promoting the personal development as well as the scholastic progress of pupils. There is evidence that pupils are being given continuous opportunity to use both nonreading and reading material in the study of personal and social problems, in satisfying interests, and in securing pleasure during leisure hours. The adult needs of the community are also being considered in planning this library's program. In all of her activities the librarian is aware of her responsibilities as a special kind of teacher. She joins the other members of the faculty in their discussions and assumes with them responsibility for constant improvement of the whole educational program.

Students entering the junior high school of Manheim Township in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, are already acquainted with the library as a part of the school, for each of the three elementary schools in the district has its own attractively planned library room. Their lower grade experiences have developed many of the basic skills necessary for effective work-study as well as personal-interest use of the library. These students enrol in their new school fully expecting a library to be available and they are not disappointed.

The new library is a cheerful room, twenty-two feet by forty-four feet, located in the center front of the second floor, entirely separate from the study hall. Built-in shelving lines three sides of the room and the floor is covered with inlaid linoleum. The furniture includes tables and chairs of various heights, a magazine rack, book-display rack, charging desk, book truck, dictionary stand, librarian's desk, and glass-topped display case. Adjoining the library at one end are a workroom and a conference room. The former contains a worktable, sink, closets, shelving, and a filing cabinet for the librarian's use. The latter contains shelving and a table seating twelve. Here student and faculty committees meet, socialized recitations are planned, play try-outs are held, and school parties and athletic events are organized. During busy periods the conference room also takes care of the overflow from the main library room.

But the books which fill the shelves are the most interesting part of the room to the students. There are nearly four thousand of them and more coming to the shelves all the time. As the library is yet young, the dollar-a-year appropriation for each student is not enough to purchase all the books, magazines, and nonreading material teachers and students would use. But it goes a long way toward keeping abreast of urgent needs. A

magazine rack contains forty-two of the magazines the boys and girls will need to supplement the book stock.

The magazine rack is always a center of activity. Here is a student preparing a report on band music from the *Etude* for his music class. Another has been excused from "gym" participation to read an article about tuberculosis control in *Hygeia.* The girl with the puzzled expression is testing her shorthand knowledge with an exercise from the *Gregg Writer,* and the boy sketching from the *Popular Mechanics Magazine* at the opposite table is copying a diagram of a sled that he wants to build. Students may come to the library during any study period as well as before and after school, during the noon hour, and in activity periods, so it is a very common sight to find them spending part of their free time just reading the magazines for pleasure. The Crafts Group, in which much remedial reading work is done, uses *The American Girl, The American Boy,* and *Child Life* magazines almost exclusively for its reading material.

Frequent demands come to this library from the classroom for a picture, needed immediately to illustrate a topic, to settle a question, or just to complete the class discussion. For instance, here comes one for a picture of the Merrimac to see whether it had smokestacks, another for a giraffe to determine whether the black or yellow color predominates, another for an interior scene of a colonial home, still another for a face of a Greek god or goddess to model in art class. These requisitions are filled from a collection of 3,100 pictures.

A group of recordings of music, verse, and oratory completes the audio-visual aids gathered in the library. It is hoped that soon a machine will be purchased for the conference room which will enable small groups of interested students to spend their free time there listening to the best of recorded word and music.

Helping the pupil get the right book is one of the biggest jobs of the librarian. She soon becomes acquainted with each new student, learning from school records, teachers, and the pupil himself something of his ability, interests, and achievements. With such data well in hand it is possible to provide more intelligently for the varied needs of the pupils. It means that the mechanical and routine work of the library must be well organized and handled in part by pupil assistants in order that she may mingle with and advise the students. In reference problems she helps the student learn how to locate and use materials which enable him to get the most complete and the best answer to his question. For supplementary reading she sees that he selects a book within his comprehension as well

as one that has real interest for him. For leisure reading she guides him skilfully so that his reading becomes an informing and enriching experience. In this school the English teachers and the librarian believe that although outside reading should be required and encouraged, individuals differ too greatly to plan a blanket reading course for all. Their primary concern is to get the pupil to like to read and to make it a pleasure for him rather than a duty.

All of a student's reading is recorded on a card by his English teacher and filed permanently in the school office. The librarian examines these cards from time to time. If the pupil is reading fiction to the exclusion of other types of literature, she may suggest a play or a challenging biography the next time he asks her to recommend a good book. If a senior is reading books of ninth-grade difficulty, she introduces him to something a little more mature. The important thing is that she helps him select a book which he will enjoy.

The librarian feels that all her efforts to promote and increase the use of the library would be of little avail without the good-will and co-operation of the members of the faculty. In the beginning of the school year she sends a note to all teachers listing the services she will be willing to undertake during the year, such as making bibliographies, talking to classes about library materials, notifying them of magazine articles pertaining to their subject, sending classroom loans to them, informing them of new books, etc. Among other things she asks for suggestions for new and additional books and pamphlets in their subject fields. These requests come to her throughout the year, and whenever possible they are filled.

In a small school with a faculty of thirty-five, it is not difficult for the librarian to know and to make contact with each faculty member, and to become familiar with personal as well as professional interests. Often by some little personal service, she strengthens the contributions of individual teachers to the community as well as to the school. An antique collector welcomes news of a new book on old glass. The bowling devotee is glad to hear of a book showing new techniques in that field. She always makes it a point to meet new teachers at the beginning of the term and to show them what the library has to offer them for their personal and professional needs. Moreover, each year she organizes a book club among the faculty for recreational reading. Each member contributes a book for circulation among the group at two-week intervals.

Recently one of the commercial-education teachers entered the library with a group of girls. The librarian soon learned that this was a class in office practice seeking answers to questions about reference books found at the end of a chapter in their textbook. The teacher realized that he, too, did not know much about some of the books, so the librarian agreed to meet with the group in the next class period. On two consecutive days pupils, teacher, and librarian worked together over the reference books most used in the business world and the indexes to magazines constantly needed in offices. Because the pupils felt a need for the information at the time, they were alert, interested, and eager to know about them. This kind of library instruction is typical of that which is given frequently. Lessons on the arrangement of the library, the classification system, the use of the card catalog, the dictionaries, and the encyclopedias are given the pupils when they enter school. They build upon the knowledge and skills acquired in the lower grades. Further instruction in the use of special reference books, magazine indexes, and the compilation of bibliographies is woven into class work as the student feels a need for it.

Several years ago the librarian began to plan for a collection of adult books. This undertaking was the result of such requests from the students as, "May I keep this book another week, my father is reading it?" or "Do you have a book you think my big sister would like?" It was apparent that, although well served while in school, the student had no source from which to borrow books after graduating unless he went to the neighboring city library. A plea for help was made and, through individual contributions of money and books and a small appropriation by the school board, the collection was started in the conference room of the library. One afternoon and one evening a week adults are given an opportunity to come to the high-school library for books, but most of the borrowing is done by students selecting them for their parents with the aid of the librarian. Since its beginning, the project has been supported by funds from the alumni association of the school and by traveling book collections from the city and state libraries.

The library attempts to enrich the curriculum of the school, to promote reading for pleasure, and to develop among students a habit of using books and library tools. Whenever it can guide an individual in his own interest or provide an insight into new and finer levels of thought and appreciation, it endeavors to do so.

III. Widespread Activities Fill a Library Day

Our third library is situated in a twelve-grade district school. The 350 pupils who attend this school are drawn largely from the rural area surrounding a factory village of 750 inhabitants. The school has a conservative program which makes limited but nonetheless vital use of library resources. The librarian's hour-by-hour description of a typical day in the school library is a good index to the school's whole program. Pupils are seen following up personal interests, consulting a wide variety of materials to answer problems raised in classrooms, learning democratic procedures, seeking and getting guidance in choosing what to read, look at, or listen to, enriching their lives with new interests and in many ways learning how to become informed, effective, and well-balanced citizens. This record[3] shows that much can be accomplished in spite of the handicaps of limited space, material, and personnel.

Activities in the Berlin (New York) Central School library, which is also a homeroom, begin at eight-thirty when thirty-seven active tenth-grade pupils give the librarian an opportunity to partake in and to investigate various activities useful in training for democracy. These pupils are responsible for order in their homeroom and take an active part in teaching their fellow-scholars to take good care of the books, magazines, and furniture. The library is also used as a study hall. Each period students enter who are scheduled there and, with both library and study-hall problems, things are soon humming! Students charge their own books. Reference questions arise continually and, although library instruction has been given in all English classes and students are fairly independent, considerable guidance by the librarian is needed. One boy wants to know what courses he should take in order to enter Syracuse College of Forestry and is referred to the shelf of college catalogs; an older boy has used the card catalog and the vocational pamphlet file but still does not have enough information on how to become a carpenter's mate in the Navy, so the librarian writes to the nearest recruiting station for material. Another boy, who has spent all his Christmas money for a ram and two ewes, wants information on sheep-raising and is helped to find a book and is advised how to write to the College of Agriculture, Cornell University, for

[3] Katharine Maxon, librarian of the Berlin (New York) Central School Library has prepared this report. This twelve-grade school draws its 350 pupils from the rural area surrounding a factory village of 750 inhabitants. Its program is a conservative one.

free pamphlets. A boy who is about to build a model of a Roman siege tower wishes pictures and descriptions; a girl desires pictures of Roman soldiers and armor for an oral topic in Latin.

A request comes from an elementary-school teacher asking for about thirty books on the African Congo and supplementary pictures and pamphlets. The librarian asks for student volunteers and two or three go to work on the card catalog and Rue's *Subject Index to Books for the Intermediate Grades* while the librarian collects pictures and pamphlets. Then she checks the books gathered by the students for suitability and they charge and carry the material to the classroom.

The ninth-grade English class reaches the library with an assignment to look up various topics concerning the movies. They need and receive instruction in the use of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* and are soon working busily in the conference room where periodicals are stored. The teacher in charge of assembly programs asks for suggestions and is shown how to use the *Educational Film Catalog.*

Interspersed among these stimulating activities, many routine matters have been carried on. Pencils, rulers, ink, compasses, etc., have been lent and returned. (Students are not allowed to go to lockers during the period.) Help has been given in arithmetic, algebra, and other textbook subjects. A few pupils have been reminded that they are in the library for reading or study. Students have come from classrooms to borrow dictionaries or atlases or to look up short reference questions. Attendance has been checked each period and the names of missing pupils have been sent to the office.

During the fourth period it is possible to use the auditorium. As the librarian has charge of a book program for the Parent-Teacher Association and also an assembly program, she has arranged with the teacher of a second study hall to combine the two in the library while the librarian takes a group to the stage for rehearsal. Students are eager to participate, so there is no difficulty in forming a cast. The Camp Fire Girls are furnishing the costumes as part of one of their projects.

Noon hour comes all too soon.

In the fifth period the seventh and eighth grades come to the library. The librarian has some new sample books of supposedly older reading interest with easier vocabulary content which she is eager to try out on the poorer readers. She asks some selected boys to "try these new books sent on approval" and tell her if they are interesting enough to keep. Others soon volunteer to read, also, and it is very interesting to note that some of

the poorest readers, and therefore usually the most restless children, settle down and really read. About this time a teacher presents a request for more books than are available in the library for a class which is preparing for an oratorical contest on the United States Constitution. A request is sent to the state library for a loan. A reporter from the school newspaper asks for library news and is given the new Junior Literary Guild books with some suggestions for reviewing them. A teacher desires a list of sea stories suitable for supplementary reading with *Treasure Island.* His class is large so the librarian makes a note to bring additional books from the public town library, which will lend collections of books to the school. The school librarian knows this collection well for she assists with the selection, ordering, and classifying of books for the public town library.

Scattered among teacher requests are those from students asking for a good book, a mystery story, an aviation story, a nursing story. Sometimes these requests can be answered by student use of the card catalog or by another pupil who likes that particular kind of book. Reference questions continue along with such questions as "What is a really good book on this history reading list?"

More offers of assistance come from students during the afternoon. One girl starts copying cards for the catalog from those which the librarian has made. Another works on a scrap book of local history which is being compiled. The librarian tears out pages of useful pictures from an old *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia,* which has been "traded in" for a new set, while students cut out and mount the pictures for the file.

Three o'clock comes, and with it a half-hour activity period in which a different intermediate grade comes each day for books and library instruction. Volunteer high-school pupils help in charging books and arranging activities such as "treasure hunts" in the card catalog or reference books.

After school, an N.Y.A. student shelves books and magazines and mends books. Books have sometimes been rebound by the students, but this year there is only time for mending. The librarian works another hour cleaning up various odds and ends, compiling circulation records, and taking care of correspondence; and then the day is ended.

IV. The Library Contributes to Pupil Growth

That education is merely the process of acquiring knowledge is the belief of many laymen and some educators. This belief probably reflects the aim of education as experienced by their own generation. Growth in

youth of the ability to acquire and apply facts and principles represents a considerable departure from the earlier aim, but it is now generally accepted in modern education. It is one of the areas in which South High School works, in order that its students on reaching maturity may be able to carry out their responsibilities as citizens and live happily and fully as individuals. That the library is an important agency for helping the schools achieve this aim is clearly shown in the next contribution.[4]

In a school devoted to increasing the maturity of its students so that they will be better able to meet their own needs, the library at South High School in Denver, Colorado, plays a part. The librarians are keenly aware that the part it now plays is a mere sample of what it should do, but they are cheered to know that they are not the only persons in the school aware of this fact.

The librarian's work at South High School is not so simple as it was in the days when records of past years would reveal that the butterfly books would start circulating the first week in October. The records which are important to the librarians now are the evaluation records which show whether the materials provided were sufficient and effective in attaining the goals set up. The flexibility of the units, the goals, and the materials keeps the librarian's work from being dull.

The librarians are often asked to help in planning new courses in the school and in revising old ones. Ideally, they should always be asked to sit in on such planning. The materials available for certain subjects have a definite bearing on the feasibility of choice of the subject. Next semester an intensive course in contemporary American history will be given. After discussion and arrangements with the teacher of the course, with various students, and with the social science department, which furnished the money, orders were given for magazines and recent books that will enrich the course. One of the best ways to guarantee that books are read after they have been bought is to have many people help in their selection.

The work of librarians at South High School seems to be one of seeking information. Perpetually, they must keep their ears open to what is going on in the school—what teachers are thinking, what courses are

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[4] Louisa Ward Arps, librarian of South High School in Denver (Colorado), has prepared this description of the role of the library in the educational program of this progressive city school. The school serves 2,500 pupils and is located in a district of comfortable upper-class homes.

brewing, what the department of general education has decided to do, what various classes are planning. Some of this information comes to them automatically, some formally from notices by teachers or class committees. They know about some because they have helped with the planning. Much information comes to them informally. They pick up valuable information at the luncheon table. Their presence at faculty meetings, which is expected and required, gives them further information.

The librarians must also seek information about their materials at innumerable sources. This is so intrinsically a part of their work that it is seldom mentioned. They must know not only the resources of the South High School Library, and be ingenious in applying them in various ways, but they must know what may be borrowed from the Denver Public Library. They must keep up with the new books in order to know what to suggest to committees for ordering. The reports on new books by all the Denver high school librarians on file at the Professional Library are a valuable aid. Knowledge of books is part of the librarian's work, as much as their ordering, preparation, cataloging, and circulation. All these routine processes take up an enormous amount of time, but the emphasis must be placed on making contacts between books and students.

The librarians at South High School find it more and more important to obtain information about the adequacy of the books they circulate. Sometimes this appears in the evaluations secured by teachers from their classes; sometimes the librarians must secure it informally by talking to teachers and students. But they must know whether the materials have been effective in obtaining the results desired so that unsatisfactory procedures may be corrected.

Brief mention should be made of the relations of the teachers to the library. The goal of the teacher is to be competent, not only as a teacher but also as a person. The librarians, having faith in the power of books, feel they should spend much time on books for teachers, both for the service to the teachers and for the good example a well-read teacher gives her students. Numerous devices to stimulate teachers' reading are used—book clubs, rental collections, convenient delivery service. A fee of fifty cents a semester is collected from each teacher and the money spent for purely professional books, to supplement the large collection at the central Administration Building of the Denver Public Schools.

The library at South High School attempts to meet the book needs of the students and to encourage them to use the various other book sources of Denver, so that they will know how to meet their book needs after they

are away from a high-school library. The first contact the library has with new students occurs during their first week at school. The new students are brought into the library by classes. They are introduced to the library rooms, the catalogs, the vertical files, the magazines, the phonograph records, and the books, to say nothing of the view of the Rocky Mountains from the big western windows. As an introductory gesture, the Sophomores are allowed to charge out books before the rest of the school may come into the library.

This introductory lesson is the only one given to all the entering students. Many of the teachers, both in English and in general education, follow this lesson with intensive reviews in library use. The boys and girls of the Denver schools have been taught how to use the library for years, and the one introductory session, with some review work, is usually sufficient to adjust them to the new surroundings. A diagnostic library test is given to the students in the last year of junior high school. The results are sent to the senior high school teachers, and it is on these results that the review lessons are based.

A check-up on library use is given to the young people in their Senior year in the form of another diagnostic test. Opportunity is then given to the librarians by the teachers to work with the students who are not thoroughly grounded in methods of using the library. The librarians at South High School feel that they should spend much time on this so that students may leave high school with the equipment necessary to use any library, public or college, with which they may come in contact.

After the review of library use the students have opportunities to use the library both in class and out. Many of them serve on book committees from their classes. For instance, the Sophomore English classes send in committees every six weeks to select classroom libraries. These are chosen from a large collection set aside for Sophomore classroom libraries and are supplemented by books from the school library or from the Denver Public Library.

Books are sent to classrooms in every conceivable way. Truck loads are sent in on certain subjects, chosen by committees of students, teachers, or librarians. For instance, books on the art, music, literature, geography, scenery, and history of Spain may be sent to a Spanish class, or a truck load of animal stories may go to a group of low reading ability. The contemporary literature classes often ask to have their classroom libraries supplemented by whatever is on the library shelves by living authors. Books are sent to classes in smaller numbers through messengers

or in the arms of teachers or librarians. The main idea is to get the books to the classes as often and in as large numbers as may be needed. The books sent to classes may be returned at the end of the period, or kept all day. Preferably they are charged out to students in the classrooms, just as though they were being charged from the loan desk in the library. When they are taken this way, the students understand that they are to be returned to the library in the regular way.

Perhaps one of the most interesting ways in which books go to classes is through the teachers who contribute to the general education courses. About six teachers in the building are given time to circulate among the general education classes for two- or three-week periods, giving them the benefit of their special knowledge. These include the art and music teachers (two of each), the teacher of home economics, the teacher of psychology, and the person who can discuss law with some authority. When these teachers are preparing their plans, they include books which are sent into the classes when needed or which are assigned to the students by title.

The general education course is required of each student at South High School for his entire school career; he is under one teacher for three years. The members of the class plan with the teacher what they would like to study, limiting themselves to units not generally touched upon in other courses. Such units include labor, unemployment, housing, conservation, defense, social legislation, transportation, health, safety, citizenship, personality, home and family relations, budgets, public opinion, science in daily life, cultural appreciation. All these are universal or personal needs.

The general education department collects fees from the students for the purchase of materials, including books. Some of the books are put directly into the library, especially those that are bought in small quantities. The library has money from this fund each semester to spend as it sees fit. The librarians are on the book committee of the general education department. Large sets of books and pamphlets bought from the general education fees are housed in a room separate from the library, and circulated to classes from there. This separation is caused solely by overcrowded conditions in the library—the school was built to house sixteen hundred but is taking care of twenty-five hundred. The librarians have been watching the work of the general education library with interest, hoping and believing that it will increase the use of the central library instead of reducing it.

Books go to classes, as stated above, but classes also come to the

books. The South High School Library was built on two floors and has a seating capacity that is capable of caring for a whole class at a time, except during the most crowded periods. The teachers or student committees arrange in advance for classes to come to the library. Usually the library can accommodate them within a day or two of the time they want to come. A duplicate catalog for the upper library helps to handle the crowds around the catalog. Classes usually are accompanied by their teachers, although sometimes the teacher remains in his room to hold conferences with some pupils while the others use the library. The teachers, of course, are free to send in a few members of the class at any time, without previous notice.

So much for the work of students in the library during class time. Individual students may come to the library at any time instead of reporting to their study halls, and they may come before and after school. The South High School Library has no book or other material that may not be charged out for overnight circulation, so that students may continue their study and reading at home. The students come to the library for assigned work, of course, but they also come to the library for reading about their hobbies, for reading to amuse themselves, or to lighten their burdens. The librarians delight in helping them find books and also do what they can to help their teachers reach them with books that will meet their problems. The idiosyncrasies of boys and girls may be touched through individual attention to the books they read. The much-neglected bright pupil may find books at his high level, and the slow learner may find books within his vocabulary power and in his line of interest. The library serves both teacher and pupil in paying attention to individual needs.

Because the school hopes to influence the boys and girls after they have left high school, many connections with the community and real life situations are emphasized. The library provides a definite link with after-school life. The librarians seek to create demands that will last long, knowing that books may be obtained through public libraries to meet the demand. School librarians must emphasize over and over that the reading habit need not stop when a young person leaves school. The school librarians at South High School make all the contacts possible with the Denver Public Library. The young people's librarian of the Denver Public Library comes to the building to work in the classrooms, introducing the public library to the school boys and girls. The Denver Public Schools have recently published a handbook for the use of high-school boys and girls, emphasizing throughout, by means of charts and maps

and statements, the nearness and availability of the Denver Public Library and all its branches.

Perhaps the most important role of the school library in the educational scheme at South High School is that the library demonstrates to the boys and girls that a democratic philosophy is workable.

V. The School's Philosophy Shapes the Library

As the school's philosophy changes so must the library itself change. The following account[5] furnishes some of the details of what happens in and through the library when a school brings a liberal philosophy of education to bear upon its whole program. It also points out some of the gains made in pupil growth by a library which has gone out to teachers and pupils rather than waiting for them to come to it.

The philosophy and teaching methods of a school are likely to be well indicated by the purposes for which its library is used. When the Tuscaloosa (Alabama) Senior High School students and teachers began to use many different kinds of material, when putting books on reserve for classes to read no longer served even a small percentage of its reference purposes, when the school began to try more adequately to meet present interests as well as possible future needs and interests of pupils, it became evident that one large, well-equipped library reading-room, a fairly good collection of books, and one professionally trained librarian were inadequate to meet the new demands. The changes which have occurred in the library set-up are indicative of changes which have come about in the school philosophy and its teaching methods.

Library space has grown from the one large reading-room to an even larger main reading-room seating 135, a small reading-room seating thirty-five, two small conference rooms—one for students and one for teachers—and a workroom. As the use of textbooks gave way to the use of many materials, the traditional study hall became almost useless. It seemed logical to do away with it and turn the space into added reading-room space which was needed. But before this was done the librarian interviewed about fifty students, taking a cross-section of the school. Nearly every student consulted was enthusiastically in favor of the change, explaining that most of them found the study hall no longer ade-

[5] Prepared by Fannie Schmitt, librarian of the Tuscaloosa (Alabama) Senior High School. This high school has about 650 students. It is an outstanding school of the progressive type.

quate for study purposes. So the blackboard and screwed-down desks came out and library equipment took their places.

The collection, too, has grown in number of volumes and in variety of subjects, but most particularly in type of materials included. The vertical file of clippings, pictures, and pamphlets has become even more important in reference work than formerly, and many pamphlets are now bound and circulated. Library stock now quite naturally and normally includes such items as dioramas from the classics and history, figures of Chaucer's Canterbury pilgrims and of Dickens' characters, a model of the Globe Theatre built exactly according to all available details of the original, and many recordings, including the Orson Welles versions of *Julius Caesar* and the *Merchant of Venice,* the Maurice Evans *Richard II, Abe Lincoln in Illinois,* poetry read by the poets themselves, several albums of the series *Americans All—Immigrants All,* MacLeish's *Air Raid,* and others. In addition to the librarian, this school now has two professionally trained assistants, library science students doing practice work, and a corps of student assistants. The staff has been enlarged as it became necessary to provide extended library service needed by students and teachers.

The space and collection are the raw materials with which the library works to help attain the objectives of this Alabama school. Any school library is essentially a service institution; it has no body of information to impart, no skills to perfect, except as such information and such skills are means to the attainment of other ends. To be sure, the library is a dynamic service institution, initiating new ways of making itself useful. Otherwise, it might not be alert and ready for immediate adaptation to any new need which it should serve. Here are a few typical instances of the ways in which students and teachers use the library.

Two conference rooms are in constant use. A small group from a class concerned about reading poetry or plays schedules one of these small rooms for one period or for several periods. At another hour the room is used by a group of boys preparing an assembly program on our Bill of Rights. They and a librarian have collected materials—books, pamphlets, clippings, and periodical articles. And now, with these materials before them and a room in which they and their teacher and a librarian can work together, they read, not to accept passively what others have written about the Bill of Rights, but that they may acquire background and understanding upon which to base their own interpretation of this document in our life today. In an assembly period later in the week they

will present their interpretation to the student body. The conference room is also requested by a group of Freshmen boys who with their teacher have asked a librarian to talk with them about books, suggesting some which they might enjoy. Such informal "book chats" offer one of the most effective means of reading guidance. Besides, they're excellent fun, enjoyed by all concerned. Again, the room is used by a group of boys investigating correct form for writing a petition. They are preparing one for an R.O.T.C. unit for the school.

The library also works with the school's debaters. They want materials on all sorts of current questions: shall the government own and operate the railroads, shall we have socialized medicine, should the poll tax be abolished, to what extent can we preserve freedom of the press? They learn to use library tools as tools through which they may find the sources of desired information; they compile bibliographies; they read and evaluate critically, weighing authorities; and, finally, they think on their feet and express their thoughts in clear, concise English. To be sure, they do not learn all these things immediately. But are they not all well worth the time and effort required from students, teachers, librarians? Will not these boys and girls, at any rate, be less likely to become easy prey for propaganda, more likely to be the effective, intelligent citizens of a democracy which the schools say they are trying to help them to become?

The small reading-room is in such constant demand by class groups that the library must keep an engagement calendar to see that classes which can and do foresee their need of it will not be disappointed. Materials are often assembled in this room so that a class can use them conveniently. Here they may talk about what they are discovering in printed materials, may work with teacher and librarian and each other, without disturbing readers in other parts of the library. Often classes come here for lessons in the use of library tools as a necessary preliminary to some investigation they are about to undertake, as did a class studying immigration in the United States. To accomplish this purpose these students needed to be able to use the card catalog, various special reference books, the *Readers' Guide*, the vertical file and many other sources of reference help available in the library. This particular group found the recording "A New England Town" (of the series *Americans All—Immigrants All*) especially useful in interpreting the contradictory feelings among the colonists toward newcomers from the Continent. Parts of *Abe Lincoln in Illinois* recorded by Raymond Massey, and Lincoln's

"Gettysburg Address" by Charles Laughton helped their discussion of immigration. The reading done by this group included books of history, economics, and, what was even more effective, biographies of some of our great foreign-born citizens—Pupin, Carnegie, Adamic, Riis. Thus, these students of an English class gained better understanding of the problem of immigration and greater tolerance toward immigrants.

The main reading room of the library serves groups who come to use reference materials in their class periods as well as the usual out-of-class library patrons. There is seldom a period without such groups coming from classes—sometimes a whole class, more often smaller groups, all working as individuals, sometimes with and sometimes without the teacher or student-teacher. Perhaps there are half a dozen boys collecting information on nutrition and diet to help interpret their findings in the health survey they are conducting. A group studying juvenile delinquency in the community may be finding out what sociologists have discovered about its causes and remedies or may be compiling statistics on conditions in other parts of the country.

There was a time, some years ago, when the school librarian had so few demands for book service during mid-term and final-examination periods that she could depend upon this time to devote attention to mending, cataloging, and the like. Today the reading and conference rooms and reference services are likely to be in constant use as part of the whole examination program. For instance, a speech class divides itself into groups, each group planning, with the teacher's advice and co-operation, its own type of examination. Another group decides upon a test of its skill in make-up and uses library materials in one of the conference rooms for this purpose, turning out some startlingly realistic Chinamen, gangsters, and aged cronies. A third group comes into the library to review the poetry and drama books, for they are to read poems and plays selected by a process of teacher-pupil planning for their tests. Once a class studying economic geography used the main reading-room for their test period, each student making a bibliography of materials available on a topic to be discussed in class during the next term and taking whatever notes he thought would be useful in introducing the subject to the group.

Many of these examples of library use indicate that instruction in the use of library tools has been given. Indeed, the ability to use the card catalog, the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature,* the vertical file, certain general and special reference books, and, of course, the printed parts

of any book, has been accepted as the fourth "R" necessary to study today. Tuscaloosa High School has recognized the need for developing such skills ever since it began organized library service. Improved methods of imparting such instruction have evolved gradually. In the beginning the instruction consisted of a series of formal lessons given in each of the three years of the school work and required of all students alike for graduation. This was a unit course. The first step toward making it more functional was to make it a part of the regular English course. Now there is no formal course, no certain number of lessons taught in each grade. Nevertheless, more students know their library tools and all can use them more easily and intelligently than formerly. This has been accomplished by making library instruction an integral part of each department's program where it is given when it is needed. Usually, a class preparing to use library materials asks a librarian to come to the classroom for a preliminary discussion of reference techniques. This is likely to be followed by class visits to the library for specific instruction in certain usages. There is still some reteaching, but not nearly so much as under the old scheme, and "library lessons" are no longer something added to the program but are an integral part of it.

The library and classroom program for free reading has also changed as the statement of the school's philosophy has been worked out. "Reading lists" were always quite liberal, allowing for much individual choice, but they were still "reading lists" and took little recognition of the individual pupil. The librarian still makes lists, but less often for a whole class than for small groups or individuals. She prepares them in order to guide student reading for certain purposes, whether the titles be good dog stories or technical discussions of television. The titles chosen from these lists by the individual student are most likely to be arrived at by teacher-librarian-pupil planning. When a teacher gives his class a long list of titles, all concerned know that the list is purely suggestive and is to serve simply as a springboard for teacher-pupil planning. If a whole class decides to read the same selection together, the choice is likely to be determined by teachers and pupils planning together.

The philosophy of this school is stated in the handbook. It reads:

The objectives of the Tuscaloosa Senior High School are to aid each student in acquiring such information, in developing such habits, skills, attitudes, interests, and appreciations, as will promote his living in a democratic society:

1. Happily and fully as an individual.
2. Usefully as a citizen.

The library has many opportunities and responsibilities to work with students and teachers toward the accomplishment of these ends—ends which can be measured fully only in the future if at all, but ends which are worthy of the best efforts always and particularly in time of national stress.

VI. Conclusion

From these descriptions it will be seen that school libraries in secondary schools are active teaching and learning centers, effective agencies for helping young people participate in democratic living, vigorous forces working in co-operation with the entire school program for developing the understanding, the spirit, the skills, and the activities necessary for participating in community life and becoming intelligent citizens.

These libraries are aiding directly in the attainment of school objectives in many ways. They are meeting reading interests and needs of young people. They are stimulating them to read and to study so as to understand themselves and other people, to find entertainment and refreshment in books, to enlarge their horizons, to keep their ideals. Librarians are guiding them as they explore new fields, teaching them how to choose what to read, supplying them with books, periodicals, and the newer audio-visual aids so desirable for today's educational program. Excellent social experiences are being offered to the pupils in these schools through their school libraries. Young people are seen learning to manage themselves and to be considerate, sharing materials and contributing suggestions and personal services to the library.

These descriptions also reveal how some school libraries are joining with classrooms in plans to give young people such stimulating and satisfying experiences in using all the community library facilities that they may be expected to use them intelligently throughout their lives. How the school library can carry forward its part of a school's adult-education program is only glimpsed in these descriptions. This is a new role for many public schools and the plans have only recently been formulated. Their libraries may be expected to play an increasingly important part as the program develops, co-operating in organizing discussion groups, striving to provide the materials for gaining literacy, understanding democracy, appreciating civil liberties, articulating public opinion, and training citizens how to reach intelligent decisions in a democratic way.

The secondary-school library's role in education is thus seen to be a dynamic one, growing with the educational program and fed by the urge of pupils and teachers to attack problems imaginatively and for signifi-

cant reasons. Behind it lies a corps of school librarians trained in professional, teaching, and guidance skills to select and disseminate effectively the books and other materials which are essential for every phase of an enlightened educational program.

Finally, it should be noted that these libraries are in different stages of development for many reasons. Often they are what they are because of the presence or lack of financial support, because of the imagination and initiative of the librarians, the teachers, the school administrators, because of the school's philosophy and the will to create what men have conceived of as best for the youth of the land. Some library services can be effectively understood and used only after the school has built up a readiness for them over a period of years. Growth and change characterize the library, as well as the school and the society which it serves.

CHAPTER IV

LIBRARY SERVICE AT THE JUNIOR-COLLEGE LEVEL

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During the past four decades there has developed an important new unit in our educational system—the junior college. Located in forty-four states, the District of Columbia, and the Canal Zone, there are today 627 junior colleges with a total enrolment of 267,406.[1] The 279 public junior colleges and the 348 private junior colleges enrol, respectively, 197,375 and 70,031 students.

Junior colleges include a wide variety of educational institutions. Typically, the junior college has a curriculum which extends two years beyond the high school; an increasing number of junior colleges now, however, have a four-year curriculum (Grades XI to XIV, inclusive). Some junior colleges have fewer than twenty students; others enrol up to several thousand. Some junior colleges are church-related institutions; others are public. Some junior colleges are boarding schools where students participate in a curriculum which extends throughout the twenty-four hours of the day; others are night schools—others, day schools. Some junior colleges charge high tuition rates and attract an economically select student body; others charge no tuition and enrol an economically underprivileged student group. Some junior colleges limit courses to a restricted college-preparatory curriculum; others include in their curriculum hundreds of courses designed to meet the needs of a student body with a wide variety of vocational plans.

The place of the library in such a complex educational unit as the junior college cannot be stated simply, for the library must adapt itself to the needs of its particular patrons and to the philosophy of the educational program of which it is a part.

[1] W. C. Eells, "Junior College Directory, 1942," *Junior College Journal*, XII (January, 1942), 279.

The importance of the library to the junior college was signally recognized by the Carnegie Corporation of New York when in 1934 it established its Advisory Group on Junior College Libraries. Over a period of some two and a half years, this group surveyed junior-college libraries and, finally, in 1937 announced grants totaling $300,000 for the purchase of books for ninety-two junior-college libraries, selected on the basis of the effectiveness of their library service.

In preparing the present chapter the findings of the Carnegie Corporation Advisory Group and the judgment of other students of junior-college library service were used to compile a list of thirty-three junior colleges to which the author wrote asking for materials describing their library service. This chapter is largely based upon the eighteen usable replies to this request, several of which have been followed up by further correspondence.

Because of the widely different types of junior colleges, it is desirable to include in this chapter descriptions of library service in a variety of junior colleges. This the writer has been able to do only in part, for he has been limited to the descriptions of library service in junior colleges concerning which he has been able to get materials. Five junior colleges, located in four states, were finally selected as representative of junior colleges having effective library service.

1. A medium-sized public coeducational junior college—Virginia (Minnesota) Junior College
2. A medium-sized public military junior college for men—New Mexico Military Institute
3. A large coeducational public junior college—Los Angeles City College
4. A small private junior college for men—Menlo Junior College
5. A large private junior college for women—Stephens College

Following the description of library services at the above five colleges, brief notes are given regarding selected phases of library service in several other schools.

The reader must recognize that colleges whose practices are described are not presented as examples of perfection, nor is it possible within the space limits of a single chapter to give complete descriptions of the library programs selected. Rather, the purpose has been to describe selected aspects of library service which may prove suggestive to other junior colleges.

I. Virginia, Minnesota, Junior College Library

Virginia, a small city with a population of 12,500, is located in the center of the Mesabi Iron Ore Range of northern Minnesota. The four hundred students enrolled in the junior college have a varied nationality background with a preponderance of Finnish, Jugoslavian, and Italian. In general, students' parents are foreign-born or second-generation American miners. Two languages are spoken in most homes. Although cultural opportunities in the homes of students are limited, the school and library facilities to which they have had access throughout their school experience are superior. Just one block from the junior college is located the public library, which has a book collection of 48,000.

Visitors to Virginia Junior College and readers of its library reports usually comment on the following characteristics of its library service:

1. The book collection is well selected and includes little "deadwood."
2. The library staff has succeeded in gaining the co-operation of the faculty in the effective use of the library in teaching.
3. The library staff is awake to the opportunities of making factual studies of problems confronting the library.

The library, which is also used as a study hall by students with free periods, is housed in two rooms with a total seating capacity of 140. The library staff, consisting of two trained librarians and one full-time subprofessional assistant, administers the collection of 15,000 books in addition to a subscription list of 145 magazines and newspapers. From time to time unused books have been weeded out so that the collection may be a live one.

Several facts mentioned above obviously influence the library and its service. Among these the following three seem particularly noteworthy:

1. The fact that students come from high schools which have effective library service reduces considerably the problem of teaching students how to use the library—for as a rule they know how to use libraries before entering college.
2. The location of a public library one block from the junior college offers opportunities for co-operation. Advantage is obviously being taken of these opportunities. In the field of book selection, for example, the junior-college library purchases few fiction and travel titles; the public library cares for the major part of student reading in these fields. On the other hand, the junior-college reference collection is unusually strong; accordingly, public library patrons frequently use the junior-college library for reference work.
3. Since the library is used as a study hall for students during their free periods,

every student has frequent opportunity for coming to the library and using its facilities. The library staff recognizes the opportunities which this arrangement offers for placing valuable and interesting materials before students—by means of exhibits, book lists, and personal contact. The staff is likewise aware of the problems (particularly those of discipline) created by the library–study hall combination. In meeting these problems the librarians have found student co-operation particularly effective.

a. General Library Administration and Practices. The library is housed in two adjacent rooms, the general reading-room with open shelves and the reserve reading-room with closed shelves. Little use is made of classroom libraries, though in some of the science laboratories small collections are maintained, and these are used heavily.

In some small- and medium-sized libraries simple cataloging is used. At Virginia Junior College, however, cataloging is more complete than in many large libraries. Underlying this practice is a conviction of the library staff that more complete cataloging of a library (for example, consistent use of more subject headings than are used by the Library of Congress, and the frequent use of from ten to twenty analytics on a single book) aids in opening up its resources to the patrons.

b. The Book Collection and Its Selection. The book collection of the library appears to be excellent, at least as compared with other junior-college libraries. Its holdings of titles included in the Mohrhardt list[2] placed this library at the ninety-seventh percentile as compared with the holdings of junior colleges of the nation. This fact, plus the comment of visitors and of faculty members on the quality of the book selection, makes it worth while to look into the book selection procedures used.

Apparently the keynotes to book selection are "faculty co-operation," "extensive use of book selection aids," and to a small extent "student co-operation." The librarian makes clear to teachers that major responsibility for selecting books in their respective fields belongs to them. The library staff wishes to (and does) help, but the major part of the work must be done by the faculty. In instrumenting this philosophy the librarian regularly sends various book selection aids (*Booklist, Publisher's Weekly, Subscription Books Bulletin,* etc.) to all faculty members with the request that they initial (it is important to observe that this does not involve extended clerical work by the teacher!) titles which they wish to

[2] F. E. Mohrhardt, *A List of Books for Junior College Libraries.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1937.

recommend. If, for any reason, funds will not at the moment permit the purchase of books which are recommended, or if the librarian believes a suggested title ought not to be purchased, he discusses the matter with the instructor. This discussion is extremely important, for it serves as a means of letting the teacher know that every suggestion of his is carefully considered—it serves as a device for improving teacher-library co-operation.

The plan for encouraging students to suggest books has not been as well developed as that for the faculty. Announcements inviting student suggestions are made from time to time, however, and such recommendations as are made are given careful attention.

c. Faculty Co-operation. Not only do faculty members co-operate in book selection but also in keeping the library staff informed of assignments, in keeping acquainted with library materials, and at times in the actual administration of the library. All teachers are asked to give the librarian copies of assignments which involve the use of library materials.

From time to time teachers spend free periods in the library where they can read in their own fields, get better acquainted with library facilities, and work with their students who are studying in the library.

For at least two hours every day one or more faculty members are scheduled for desk duty in one of the library reading-rooms. Although this scheduling was originally planned simply as an aid to the library staff, it actually results in improved understanding of the library by the faculty and of increased use of the library in teaching.

d. Factual Studies of Library Problems. The annual reports of the Virginia Junior College Library at times describe studies made by the library staff. The 1936–37 report, for example, includes an account of a study of the use of magazines in the library. This study, made by N.Y.A. students who tallied the magazines read for a period of several hours a day during six months, indicated the magazines which were most frequently used during the 1936–37 school year and the results were used in preparing the magazine order for the following year.

That same year an inquiry-form study was made of the reading preferences of students as compared with their actual reading habits. On the inquiry blank, students checked the types of books they most enjoy reading and then reported titles they had actually read during the preceding year. The results of the study were used as aids to book selection and in individual student reading guidance.

Another study is reported for the 1940–41 school year when an investi-

gation was made of the relationship of grades students received in selected courses to the number of books borrowed from the library for use in those courses. The results of the study, which indicate that there is a significant relationship between grades and number of books borrowed, have been used extensively in library publicity.

These studies are mentioned not so much because of the significance of their results as because they represent an experimental attack on library problems.

II. New Mexico Military Institute Library

Representative of a public residential junior college which has a beautifully furnished and well-equipped library is New Mexico Military Institute. Here is a junior college which recognizes the need of a well-financed library program; here is a library which makes its influence felt throughout the college; here is a library which stresses recreation as well as academic opportunities.[3]

a. Aims. What is culture when it is alive? It is expression between one man and his fellows. Reading books, seeing pictures, hearing music, learning work, doing business, talking politics, these are the civil arts; they contain the raw material of culture, and they stand for the use to which the creative arts are put.

A library is a place where daily culture is reflected and where it meets the living culture of the past. How richly these two mingle determines the character of a library user—boy, man, his neighbors, and finally his country. In the large, this is the value of all learning, its joy and duty; and it is what makes a library's idea greater than its method.

Like anything worth having "for keeps," culture comes slowly; it even takes generations, in terms of a nation's character; and so elusive is it that if you try to isolate it from the terms of *daily* life, common or garden life, and so rob it of a sort of functional honesty, it is lost straightway.

This library tries to let the civil arts be daily voluntary enjoyments of its young public.

New Mexico Military Institute is a state school with a junior-college enrolment of 350 and a high-school enrolment of 269. Particulars of the Institute Library performance follow. But no single one of them should be regarded as oversignificant. It is the whole job which matters. It can-

[3] The remainder of this section is contributed by Paul Horgan, Librarian at New Mexico Military Institute.

not be *broken down* into anything *like* an accurate picture. Some particulars will seem more significant than they are and some less. Possibly most attention should be paid to the ideas and aims of the library; for, in any library of normally adequate technical routine, these can be readily understood if clearly stated. Beyond this, it is as important to leave a boy and a book alone as it is to see that they originally get together.

With that mild warning in mind, we will now particularize.

b. Resources and Fields of Interest. The two main purposes of the Institute Library are academic and recreational, and the second is as vital as the first. Both are served by resources that include not only the general collection of books and periodicals and a staff of three officers and six cadet assistants but also by exhibitions of popular and fine arts, by phonograph and moving-picture programs, and by the publication of a monthly review of books with criticisms written by cadets themselves.

The physical plant of the library (barely a year old) expresses its plan of action. Comprising the west wing of the Headquarters-Library building, it consists of fourteen rooms on three floors. The basement level is given over to the preparation, cataloging, and housing of the book collection, which contains about 20,000 volumes, and to the filing of unbound, unindexed periodicals.

The second floor is devoted to *special use* of the library and includes the forum, for meetings and programs of all sorts; the tower browsing-room, for pleasure reading solely; the reserved-book reading-room, where a whole section of cadets may be brought by an instructor to find materials gathered for research use in a common assignment; seminars for the English and social-science departments; a temporary office for school periodicals; and the librarian's office. The upstairs hall is used as an exhibition gallery. The public rooms of the library are all acoustically treated.

How is a cadet invited to notice books and begin to discover for himself the lifelong riches available within them? Wherever a cadet finds a book that interests him, he will also find a place to sit down and spend some time with the book in comfort. He has free access at all times to the general bookstacks. He may draw out as many books at a time as he likes. He is encouraged to propose titles for purchase, and often does so. If he begins to feel that he is in a club or a big friendly house instead of a library, then the school's aim in this department has begun to succeed.

The cadet sees the new books of all kinds grouped together just inside the lobby doors, where he may choose, grab, and run, if he is in a hurry.

By handling books in the stacks he learns to know them as he never could if restricted to the card catalog. He finds all fiction gathered into a browsing corner of the main stack room where he can lose himself in an easy chair with a book. In the tower browsing-room he finds the library's latest purchases scattered around on tables, with their jackets still on, before they have taken on the necessarily "classified" look of a library book; and, as if he were dipping into the new books in a good bookstore or at home, he may rove with his eye until he happens upon something to interest him; and then he may scribble his name on a card inside the book to reserve it when it is ready to circulate.

Here in the tower room he will find, too, a constantly refreshed collection of books in all fields, winnowed from the main stacks, which he might otherwise never discover; and picture-books, too, ranging from the fine arts through technology to cartoons. The tower room is a place where he reads purely for enjoyment.

It is a cardinal aim of the library to inculcate a desire to read for enjoyment. When that struggle is won early, then the problem of study itself is on the way to solution.

But it is a taste achieved by indirection, by contagion, by juxtaposition of book and boy. As long as it all seems casual, indeed, inevitable, the boy responds in his own way and knows the reward of the discoverer. Though the library often just exceeds a boy's grasp, so that he grows by reaching, it also rewards his interest with things he already enjoys, like magazines and other outlets for his hobbies. The magazine collection covers all conceivable cadet interests and offers his elders on the faculty a comprehensive ration of professional and recreational journalism.

There are other expressions of culture made available to cadets. These include exhibitions of works of art. Changing exhibits every three weeks, the library offers exhibitions that range from original paintings to reproductions of masterpieces in color; from lithographs and drawings to the best advertising illustrations; from displays co-ordinated with topics being taught in academic courses to works of art and photography and craft by the cadets themselves. These displays have been used successfully as fuel for exercises in theme-writing by officers of the English department. Again, they are meant to interest the cadet in a purely incidental way, and their point is not lost when he sees art as something interesting, full of things to find out for himself.

Every week in the forum, a small auditorium on the second floor, the library presents two series of programs at an hour in the late afternoon

when the cadet is free to drop in. The first of these is a series of phonograph programs of literature: speech, drama, poetry, history, stories. Examples of the kind of thing presented: Carl Sandburg's own recorded excerpts from his book, *The People, Yes;* Lynn Fontaine in Alice Duer Miller's *The White Cliffs;* Ronald Colman as Scrooge in Dickens' *A Christmas Carol;* Archibald MacLeish's radio drama *Air Raid;* recorded productions by Orson Welles of Shakespeare's plays; recitals of poetry by poets and distinguished readers; programs of historical documents, such as speeches by all United States presidents from Theodore Roosevelt to Franklin D. Roosevelt, by foreign statesmen and rulers such as King George V, King Edward VIII, Prime Minister Chamberlain, etc.

The second series of the Forum Five O'Clocks presents nonfiction movies, covering everything from building a dam to flying the Andes. Sample programs: Pare Lorentz's "The River"; United States Government's "T.V.A."; F.B.I. instructional films; South American life in various aspects; films on sports technique, etc. An affiliated cadet organization gathers to hear programs of classical music on the phonograph.

Cadet participation in all these things is voluntary. That it exists and grows is proof of how youth will respond when culture is relieved of snobbery or rarity. To encourage that response, the Institute Library is open daily from after breakfast until taps, excepting the two hours of supervised night study.

The library can never take the place of the classroom; the reference collection cannot achieve the focus and proportion of the textbook; and casual relations with the librarian can never achieve what intimate association with the teacher achieves for the student. But the library widens the horizon of the classroom. The student discovers that the library is like a general sea of knowledge on which the textbook floats and pursues its course. When a student goes to sea, in this sense, his instructor pilots him and shows him how there is more to going to sea than the inside of a ship.

At the Institute, instructors help to create the book collection by recommending books to purchase. Again, like faculty members everywhere, they choose special reference shelves of reserve material; they conduct group research exercises in the upstairs reading-room established for the purpose; they bring classes to hear phonograph recitations of history or literature, or to see films, or to study picture exhibitions; they meet a couple of cadets in one of the seminars and, with a handful of books,

work out a problem in conversation that is here free and easy but which, if conducted in the main reading-room downstairs, would disturb others.

The principles of how to use the library are relayed to cadets by the librarians in visits to the various classes. Sometimes a cadet who is familiar with the system is requested by his instructor to educate his classmates in library routine. In spite of all its chances of earnest confusion, this has worked fairly well, because the cadet thus gets the point from somebody, like himself, who isn't expected to know everything about library technique, and who somehow makes what he *does* know about it seem simpler than it all looked at first.

Description has so far been concerned with the aims and fields of interest of the Institute Library for the cadet's sake and has touched upon its two-fold mission—academic and recreational, for the betterment of boys. These same aims and fields have a more mature expression which is equally important: unless the faculty receives nourishment and stimulus from the action of the library, then the job is not being well done.

Books in all categories which will appeal primarily, or entirely, to the teaching staff are often added to the library. Many periodicals have chiefly faculty patronage. Good teachers all know that education never ends, least of all for themselves. To keep fuel of growth constantly replenished for those who want to help youngsters to grow is one of the vital purposes of the library. As no school is any better than its teachers, so must a school supply its teachers with the intellectual resources they need and enjoy.

This is the library's privilege; and it is distinct from, though allied with, the other purpose of making library materials bear directly upon actual academic application.

III. The Library of Los Angeles City College

Los Angeles City College, which has an enrolment of 5820 (1308 of whom go to evening classes only) and a faculty of 200, is the nation's largest junior college.

Despite the size of its student body and of its teaching staff, City College has a library which concerns itself not with mass education, not with a rigid nonpersonalized library service, but rather with library service directed to the needs of each section of the curriculum, of each teacher, of each student.

The students in this public junior college come from a wide variety of

economic, social, and cultural backgrounds; they have an even wider variety of plans, hopes, and aspirations. Since their junior-college work is terminal for most students at City College (only 25 per cent of the student body take courses which parallel the university), terminal curriculums are emphasized and particular stress is placed upon semiprofessional and vocational training in such fields as recreational leadership, work of dentists' assistants, radio broadcasting, home administration, work of nursing and engineering aides, legal secretaryship, and police work. The library, which has a collection of more than fifty thousand volumes, is housed in a separate two-story building, the reading-rooms of which have a total seating capacity of 580. On the main floor are located the central charging desk, stack rooms, the periodical room and the reference and general reading-room. The ground floor includes reserve reading-rooms, an exhibit hall, and a law reading-room.

The size and the heterogeneity of the student body, the breadth of the curriculum, and the variety of instructional procedures used in different fields have a direct effect upon the library and its administration. Particularly is this true when the library staff, as is the case at City College, is eager to adapt the library to the needs of teachers and students in all fields of the curriculum.

a. Departmental Libraries and Other Special Collections. Although the library at City College is, for the most part, housed in a central building, departmental and classroom libraries are established when teachers wish them. Books in a departmental library are cataloged in the central catalog and charged out to the departmental field, where they are under the direct supervision of the faculty. Hours at which these books are available to students vary from department to department as do methods of administration. In general, however, department collections are available from 8:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. daily. During these hours, while instructors are teaching and working with students, appropriate books are conveniently at hand. Among the fields in which departmental libraries are used are chemistry, police curriculum (courses training men for public service on the police force), public affairs, vocational guidance, and dental assistant's curriculum.

In addition to departmental collections borrowed from the central library, several fields of study have established departmental libraries of books not owned by the college but purchased for the department by assessments paid by students. For example, students in certain English and drama courses contribute to a fund which is employed to purchase books.

In this way a collection of over two thousand books has been built up in each of these departments to supplement or replace the textbook.

Departmental libraries are not, however, the only means which City College Library uses to group books together for convenient use by students in given courses. In one economics course, for example, a temporary classroom library is set up at the opening of each important unit. The books on the unit (foreign trade, for example) are selected by the teacher and sent to his classroom. The teacher uses a major part of the opening period on the unit in discussing the books which are best for use in considering various aspects of the subject. Students are given an opportunity to examine the books and, at the close of the period, may borrow books for study outside of class. Teachers report that this plan results in the selection by students of books adapted to their individual needs and interests—for the instructor is available to guide their choice. This plan also permits students to begin reading on new units at the very opening of the period of study.

A modification of the departmental library is used by the teachers of English who have established, on open shelves in the reference room of the library, a special collection of several hundred titles which are used for outside reading in their courses. Since a major purpose of reading in this course is to develop and extend the reading interests of students, titles in the collection are varied (Paul de Kruif's *Microbe Hunters*, Max Eastman's *The Enjoyment of Poetry*, Vincent Sheean's *Personal History*, Rene Balbenoit's *Dry Guillotine*, Norman Bel Geddes' *Horizons*, etc.). The location of these titles in a special open-shelf collection facilitates the selection of books by students and makes particularly valuable the browsing assignments which are used from time to time preceding the selection of books for reading.

b. Selecting Books for Semiprofessional Curriculums. Because Los Angeles City College has pioneered in offering a large number of new semiprofessional curriculums, classroom teachers and librarians have needed to work with unusual care on the selection of library books for use in studying these previously undeveloped fields. One example of the procedures used at City College is the selection of books for the dental assistant's curriculum. The teachers in the field study publishers' lists, books recommended by dental associations, and bibliographies in dental education; they likewise interview dentists and publishers' representatives and actually examine as many books in the field as are available. On the basis of this study the teachers choose for consideration titles which are appar-

ently accurate, suitable, and helpful for the training of dental assistants. The tentative list thus prepared is submitted to a dental advisory committee composed of five members of the California State Dental Association. This plan of studying book lists, of examining books themselves, and of utilizing the judgment of successful leaders in the field is typical of the book selection procedure used in the newly developed semiprofessional fields.

In a school the size of City College, particularly in a school having a separate library building, it would be easy for the library to become a machine which operates according to a restricted set of rules, without particular reference to the needs and interests of individual teachers and student groups. It is encouraging to observe the extent to which the City College Library staff has avoided this danger and has adapted its service to the needs of various curriculum groups through such agencies as the establishment of special collections (permanent or temporary, in the library or in a classroom, as the case may require) and the development of co-operative plans for book selection.

IV. Menlo School and Junior College Library

Menlo School and Junior College, California, is a private residential high school and junior college for boys, with a junior-college enrolment of 150, a high-school enrolment of 100, and a faculty of 40.

Menlo is particularly noteworthy because of its success in making the library a unified part of the instructional program. The Menlo library includes more than 11,000 books (40 per cent of which have been purchased during the last six years), subscriptions to 138 current magazines and newspapers, 150 phonograph records, over 800 transcriptions of significant radio programs, several hundred art pictures, and facilities for securing motion pictures on loan for instructional uses. It is financed by appropriations in the regular college budget and by fees paid by students in each course in which they are not required to buy textbooks. A grant of $3,000 from the Carnegie Corporation has been an important factor in library expansion at Menlo.

The library is centrally administered and includes, in addition to the general reading-room, a social-studies laboratory, a reading laboratory, shelves in the science laboratory, a small branch in the school barber shop, and numerous temporary classroom libraries which are supplied from the general collection whenever teachers ask for them. The staff

consists of a librarian, one full-time assistant, one part-time assistant, several student librarians, and clerical help as needed.

The most significant facts concerning library service at Menlo, however, lie entirely outside those specifics which have been mentioned—book stock and other facilities, staff, and decentralization of books. The most important factors which condition library service at Menlo are these: first, the library is regarded as a unified part of the instructional program; and, second, Menlo has a research and experimental attitude toward educational problems, particularly toward those relating to the library.

a. The Library Is a Unified Part of the Instructional Program. The staff takes the view that librarians and teachers are actually united in one single instructional staff. The library is administered by a committee consisting of the librarian and the chairmen of subject-matter departments. Library problems are studied by the library committee under the leadership of the librarian and with the aid of teachers. Teachers keep the library staff informed of assignments through the use of assignment sheets which are regularly turned in to the appropriate library and by the fact that teachers and students are frequently in the library doing research type of study; the library staff and the teachers work together on the problem of securing needed instructional facilities (not only books, but also pictures, pamphlets, motion pictures, and recordings) and of placing these materials where they can best be used for instructional purposes, whether that be in the central library, in a departmental laboratory, or in a temporary classroom library.

b. A Research Attitude toward Educational Problems. Located near the campus of Stanford University, Menlo has taken advantage of the research facilities and advice of the Stanford University School of Education in developing its curriculum, its guidance program, and its library service. Particularly notable is the emphasis given to the library in the general education studies being carried on at Menlo. The first major published evidence of this emphasis was the appearance of Adams' volume on the junior-college library.[4] Although the volume reports a national study of the junior-college library, the discussion of library investigations and developments at Menlo comprise an important part of the book. An

[4] H. M. Adams, *The Junior College Library Program.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1940.

even more complete and up-to-date study of the Menlo Library by Cross[5] is now in progress.

Adams' study is particularly interesting because in its opening stages it involved a survey on the basis of which the faculty planned future library developments. This survey included a study of student ability to use books and libraries, of students' reading interests and habits, of the actual use made of the library, and of suggestions for improving library service. As a result of these studies a faculty reading council was established further to study plans for improving library service and increasing reading and study efficiency. In the spring of 1937 this committee recommended that a student-faculty committee make specific recommendations on "(1) the nature and number of desirable branch units; (2) the administration of these units; and (3) a program for training students in the use of books and the library."[6]

The recommendations of this committee and the continual study of library problems has resulted in the decentralization previously referred to. These recommendations have likewise led to the inclusion of library instruction in the orientation course which all freshmen students take. Briefly, this instruction involves study of a pamphlet on how to use the library, a tour of the library, and the preparation of a bibliographical assignment which requires the use of a variety of library tools. Textbooks have been eliminated in all social-studies classes and in nearly all English classes as a result of the acceptance of the thesis that "students are individuals and need a variety of materials in any one class."

The investigation by Cross[7] which is now in progress gives further consideration to the contributions of library service to the students. Specifically, Cross aims "to find out what good reading is for the students of Menlo School and Junior College, how well the library is making provision for such reading, and what steps should be taken in the future to provide better facilities for such reading."

It is notable that both Adams and Cross have made studies the results of which can be immediately applied to the improvement of library facilities at Menlo.

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[5] Neal M. Cross, "Study of the Library of Menlo School and Junior College." Thesis in preparation, Graduate School, Stanford University.

[6] Adams, *op. cit.* p. 77.

[7] Cross, *op. cit.*

V. Stephens College Library

Stephens College is a private junior college for women with an enrolment of seventeen hundred students from forty-eight states, the District of Columbia, and twelve foreign countries. The college takes an experimental attitude toward educational problems. Specifically, it is studying the activities, needs, and problems of women and is building a curriculum designed to meet those needs as well as the needs of society to which women can best contribute. The philosophy of the college demands that the attention of the entire staff be centered upon determining the abilities and needs of each student and guiding her in the projection of a program which will capitalize upon her individual needs and abilities and upon her potential contributions to society.

For more than a decade the faculty (including library staff, classroom teachers, counselors, administrators) at Stephens College has been working on a program of library development specifically designed to make the library contribute as effectively as possible to the education of every student. Since this program—including the development of classroom, division, dormitory, and personal libraries; the establishment of the dual position of librarian and dean of instruction; the expansion of library materials, including books, pictures, phonograph records, music, and motion pictures; changes in methods of classroom teaching; and increased use of library materials—has been described in some detail elsewhere,[8] it will not be repeated here. In the present interpretation of the Stephens College Library, the story of the library experience of a new student will be related.

It was a Tuesday afternoon in September when seventeen-year-old Susie Stephens ended her train trip from Dallas, Texas, to Columbia, Missouri. A taxi took her and four other new students to their residence hall where Susie found her roommate, Mary Smith, already busy unpacking. The new roommates were visiting excitedly when Kay Jones, Susie's "senior sister," stopped by to offer her help in getting acquainted with the campus. One of the first places Kay showed Susie and Mary was the general library, where the girls picked out a mounted and framed picture (Degas' "Dancing Lesson") for their room. Selecting a picture early, Kay explained, was important because the subject and colors of

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[8] B. Lamar Johnson, *Vitalizing a College Library*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939.

the picture must be considered in planning the arrangement of a dormitory room, including the selection of drapes and bed coverings.

As Susie was about to leave the library she spied a sign which read, "Make personal library appointments here." Susie had read about personal libraries in the college catalog—how each girl who wishes may borrow a group of books which she may keep all year for her own personal use. Since Susie liked the idea of having a group of well-selected books available in her room, she made an appointment for the following Saturday with the librarian in charge of personal libraries.

On Friday, at Susie's first class, English composition (ordinarily spoken of on the campus as communications), her teacher gave each student a copy of the *Knowledge Locator*, a library handbook[9] which is written in the form of a chatty letter from Aunt Susie to her niece, Melissa, a new student at Stephens. Each student was asked during the following week, first, to study the *Knowledge Locator;* second, to take (with the aid of the *Knowledge Locator*) a self-conducted tour of the general library; and, third, at the time of taking this tour to write answers to a group of questions, each of which involved the use of a library tool.

Following the completion of these assignments, Susie's class was given an objective test on how to use the library. Since in high school Susie had learned how to use a library, she passed her library usage test and was not required to take further instruction. Almost half her classmates, however, needed further help. This instruction was given by the English teacher, who used a group of self-administering exercises[10] which require the use of the card catalog, periodical indexes, encyclopedias, and dictionaries.[11]

By the close of the first month of school, Susie was working on an investigative paper ("Facts and Fallacies in Racial Characteristics") in English. During the material-gathering stages of preparing their papers, Susie, her classmates, and her English teacher worked together in the college libraries, actually putting into practice what they had learned about library tools and learning about new library resources.

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[9] Jean Bailey, *The Knowledge Locator*. Columbia, Missouri: Stephens College, 1941.

[10] Wesley Wiksell and Mary Eleanor Filkin, *The Wiksell-Filkin Treasure Hunt*. Columbia, Missouri: Stephens College, 1941.

[11] It is notable that both the *Knowledge Locator* and the *Treasure Hunt* were written by English teachers—not by librarians.

Susie's second class in college was social problems. As she entered the classroom she observed that the room was furnished with tables and chairs, arranged to encourage informal discussion or for laboratory work. She likewise saw that the classroom opened directly into the social-studies library with its collection of several thousand books and scores of periodicals. At its second meeting, this class decided that one of the best means of beginning the co-operative study of society was to pool the resources, experiences, and backgrounds of various members of the class. As an initial step in this, each member of the class (they came from twenty-four different communities in all sections of the country) agreed to prepare a survey of her home community. The preparation of these surveys required, first, a study of representative community surveys (Lynd's *Middletown;* Blumenthal's *Small Town Stuff*, etc.) and, second, the gathering of materials about and from the home communities. Since both of these necessitated the use of library materials, the instructor and his class went to the social-studies library, where they observed its arrangement and its contents and spent a part of the period in examining its value as a source of materials for community surveys.

This use of the social-studies library was but an introduction to a source of materials which Susie was to discover that she and her classmates would rely on increasingly during the year—books were always conveniently at hand for use during the classroom discussions or during laboratory-work periods; the social-studies books were grouped together in one central location; library materials were immediately at hand during the instructor's conferences with students.

At Susie's third college class, humanities, she learned that the library was to be the major source of study materials for this course—phonograph records and music scores for studying music; pictures and slides for studying art; books and magazines for studying literature. It was also during this period that Susie first learned of the phonograph-record program broadcast over the local radio station under the supervision of a member of the library staff. This program, conveniently scheduled during the siesta hour (from one to two, Monday through Friday), when no classes meet, later became a favorite with Susie.

Susie's fourth class, literature, met in a conference room which opens directly off the literature stacks in the general library. The course has no textbook—for the library is both the text and the meeting place for the class. Each student, in consultation with her teacher, develops a personal-

reading program.[12] Class hours are used as reading periods, as hours when reading experience will be exchanged, or as periods for individual conference with the instructor.

In her fifth class, biology, another "no text" course, she discovered that her teacher gives an unusual interpretation to "laboratory work" and to "laboratory materials." He announced that the biology course was essentially a laboratory course in which students would be working on problems of individual or of group concern; he went on to explain, however, that laboratory work includes the gathering of all types of significant data (from interviews, from books, from field trips, from motion pictures, from microscopic studies, from dissection) on the problem being studied. He particularly emphasized the science library (two doors removed from the classroom) as a source of aid and illustrated the importance of books to course work by calling attention to the collection of pamphlets and books that are always available in the classroom.

Susie's first week at college had been a busy one. She had made the acquaintance of new friends, of new resources—and among these the library held an important place.

VI. Glimpses at Several Libraries

a. The Library and the Advising Program. Several junior colleges report that their libraries are assuming positions of increasing importance in guidance. At Scranton-Keystone Junior College, La Plume, Pennsylvania, for example, a careful record is kept of all books borrowed by students during their junior-college course. This record, which indicates author, title, and date of each book borrowed, is at all times available to the individual student and to members of the faculty and guidance staff. The library staff reports that the personnel office uses the records continually and effectively.

A somewhat similar plan is followed in the library at Wright Junior College, Chicago. Here, however, an additional item is noted; namely, the purpose (class assignment, recreational reading, etc.) for which each book was used. This information is gathered simply by asking the students to indicate, when they borrow the book, the purpose for which they expect to use it.

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[12] Zay Rusk Sullens, "Individualized Procedure in the Sophomore Survey," *English Journal*, XXIV (November, 1935), 746–56; "A Letter on Literature in the General College," *College English*, I (December, 1939), 237–44.

At Wright Junior College the librarian acts as a special counselor for two types of students: first, those students who need direction in how to study; and, second, those superior students for whom a normal program is insufficient to occupy their energies. In working with both types of students the librarian develops, co-operatively with the student concerned, an individual program of help.

In a number of junior colleges special vocational guidance collections are established.

At the Compton, California, Junior College a vocational guidance alcove in the library came into being as the result of an increased demand from students and faculty for some location in the library where guidance materials could be assembled and made readily available. One corner of the main reading-room was taken for this purpose. Low counter shelves were so placed as to inclose the corner and form an alcove. Two sections of standard shelves, a vertical file, and adequate seating were provided. The result is a much-used corner in an already busy library. In this spot are shelved books about vocations and all available pamphlet and clipping data. These latter are first mounted on uniform pages, filed in manilla folders, and arranged alphabetically according to vocation in the vertical file. Here also are shelved an up-to-date collection of college catalogs, representative of educational institutions throughout the United States. This makes it possible for a student to determine the entrance requirements of colleges and universities for any chosen field.

The resources of this alcove are used extensively by (1) individual students who are in search of information concerning the choice of a vocation, (2) faculty counselors who are in search of data to aid them in advising students, and (3) classroom instructors who frequently make the choice of a vocation a specific assignment in connection with regular class routines.

b. Phonograph Records. The library staff at Colby Junior College, New London, New Hampshire, is not content with supplying more than one thousand phonograph records for use in classrooms and in a listening room. The library has also purchased several portable phonographs which together with records are loaned to students for use in their dormitory rooms. The library staff and students are enthusiastic over this means of encouraging listening. There is heavy student use of phonograph records, some wearing out of records, but relatively no breakage.

c. Reading for Infirmary Patients. The Frances Shimer Junior College, Mount Carroll, Illinois, supplies reading for students who are in the in-

firmary. This is done by providing a small rotating book collection which is changed every two weeks.

d. Doors Are Always Open. The library of Centenary Junior College, Hackettstown, New Jersey, operates on a twenty-four-hour basis, seven days a week; the doors are never locked and the shelves are open. If a librarian is not on duty when a girl wants to take a book out, she charges it herself. If she cannot find what she wants, she leaves a "want slip" for the librarian, who has the material waiting for the girl the next time she comes to the library. This idea of having the library always open may be one which would be difficult to administer in larger schools (Centenary is a junior college for women with an enrolment of 171). It represents, however, an ideal toward which to strive.

VII. Trends in Junior-College Libraries

No attempt will be made to summarize the various junior-college library programs which have been considered in this chapter. Rather, the purpose of this section will be to describe trends and to note innovating practices which may later develop into significant trends.

1. Encouraging indeed is the trend observed in junior-college libraries to adapt the library and its administration to the needs of individual teachers and students. In doing this, some junior colleges, such as Menlo and Stephens, accept a policy of decentralization. In other colleges in which centralization is accepted as a policy (as at Los Angeles and Virginia), classroom or department collections are usually established at the request of the teachers. Other types of adaptation of library practices to the needs of teachers are arrangements of special shelves for books used in selected courses (as in English composition at Los Angeles), and the use of the library as a place where teachers and students can spend class periods and free periods working together. The devices of adaptation to need are important—but not nearly as important as the spirit which motivates these adaptations, a spirit which recognizes the essential unity of library service with instruction.
2. A number of junior-college libraries are recognizing the importance of factual studies as a basis for attacking library problems. Particularly notable in this connection are the studies conducted at Menlo Junior College, where two faculty members have used studies of the college library as the basis for their doctoral dissertations. Less extensive and

more informal studies are, however, effectively made in other junior colleges, such as Virginia.

3. Junior-college libraries are adopting an increasingly broad interpretation of library materials to include not only books, but also pictures, slides, movies, phonograph records, music, and recordings of radio programs. One library (Colby Junior College) has even gone so far as to loan portable phonographs to students. This expanded concept of the library goes far in the direction of making the library the resource center of the college.
4. Making library materials accessible to students and teachers at times and places where they are most needed has been referred to above as one means of adapting the library to individual student-faculty needs (see "1" above). This trend is so important, however, that it deserves special emphasis, for classroom libraries, open shelves, department libraries, library reading periods, and teachers spending office hours in the library are all a part of a trend toward breaking down barriers between students, teachers, and books. One notable contribution to this trend is made by the library of Centenary Junior College which keeps its doors open twenty-four hours a day—regardless of whether or not a librarian is on duty.
5. The library is playing a role of increasing importance in the junior-college guidance program. Three activities seem to illustrate this contribution: some junior colleges are providing special collections of guidance materials (as for example the vocational guidance alcove at Compton Junior College); some colleges use individual student reading records as an important aspect of guidance data in the personnel office (Wright and Scranton-Keystone junior colleges), and some library staffs participate in reading programs for individual students.

CHAPTER V

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY AS AN AGENCY FOR GENERAL EDUCATION

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The organic acts under which our public libraries have been founded seldom formally identify them as a part of the public educational system of a state. The history of the American public library is nevertheless inseparably linked with the history of the American public school, and in recent years the two institutions have tended to become more, rather than less, alike. Beginning as agencies for the common supply of books that literate adults of a community could not or would not buy for themselves, public libraries opened their doors first to youth and then to children; and they have broadened their services to include a wide range of interpretive activities, including instruction. The public schools and colleges, beginning as agencies for the instruction of youth, have sought to attract larger and larger numbers of the adult community; and they have extended their facilities to include, as integral units, collections of the books and other materials on which their broadened program of instruction is founded. Thus there is a considerable range of activity common both to public schools and to public libraries.

In 1939 some 6,880 public libraries provided free library service to the communities in which they were situated. Of these, the 5,798 reporting to the United States Office of Education owned 104,728,775 volumes that were withdrawn for home use 415,924,335 times by 26,000,000 registered borrowers.[1] The reading of books is not a conspicuous trait of Americans at large, the majority of our population preferring newspapers and periodicals; but of the books read in any one year, the public library is the

[1] *Library Service.* Preprint of Vol. I, chap. i, of *The Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1938–40.*

most important source for all classes of readers, furnishing as many books as all other agencies combined.[2]

The population the country over does not hold an even stake in the services of its public libraries. In Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and the District of Columbia, public libraries are accessible to the entire population; in West Virginia, to only 12 per cent of the population. The Northeast, Far West, and Middle West are comparatively better provided than the Southeast and Southwest. Of the 35,500,000 persons without access to public libraries in 1941, 32,600,000 lived in the country. Thus, 57 per cent of the entire rural population did not enjoy the advantages of the public library.

Further differences are evident in respect to population served, quality, and kinds of service. Of the 6,000 public libraries studied by Joeckel, about 1,800 were found in hamlets of 1,000 persons or fewer; more than 4,000 libraries were situated in towns of 4,000 or fewer; only 440 (7 per cent) served a total population of 25,000 or more. Variations were equally great in respect to financial support: 3,000 libraries had an income of $1,000 or less; 4,800 had no more than $4,000; only 258 (4 per cent) had an annual income of $25,000 or more. Although annual income and the number of persons served are not absolute measures, it is nevertheless true, by and large, that libraries with the strongest financial support afford the amplest and the most diverse reading materials.

The provision, at public expense, of books, periodicals, prints, photographs, maps, recordings, films, and the other basic records of our culture essential to general education of all the people is intrinsically a single problem, however it may be organized. The aspect assigned to this chapter is the public library as a resource in the general education of (1) school children and youth during out-of-school hours; (2) out-of-school youth; and (3) adults.

I. Public Library Services to School Children and Youth in Out-of-School Hours

Services organized by public libraries especially for the public schools —classroom collections, unit libraries, centralized purchase and prepara-

[2] C. B. Joeckel, *Library Service*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938. See also L. R. Wilson, *The Geography of Reading*. Chicago: American Library Association and University of Chicago Press, 1938; John C. Settlemeyer, "Public Library Service in the United States, 1941," *American Library Association Bulletin*, XXXI (June, 1942), 399–402.

tion of books for the schools, inter-library loans, and the like—are dealt with in chapter xii. It should be noted, however, that the public libraries that do not limit their work with schools to the public schools are likely to include on equal terms parochial and other private schools, special schools for the deaf and other handicapped children, institutions for cripples and chronic invalids, playgrounds and summer camps, churches, and other organized institutions such as scouting. "Community contacts," which are stressed in the professional training of children's librarians, are often sounder and more far-reaching in the children's than in the adult department.

Many of the activities described in chapters ii to iv as characteristic of the better school libraries may be observed in the better public libraries, the extent and intensity depending on such factors as the relative adequacy of the school and the public libraries, the habits of the children, and the degree to which co-operative relationships have been fostered between school and public librarians. Much of what goes on in the children's room of any public library during out-of-school hours grows out of or is related to school assignments: collateral or outside reading, "free" reading, the collection of facts basic to a particular topic, individual or group projects, the collection of pictures, slides, books, periodicals, or pamphlets for classroom use, etc. If the school libraries are lacking or meager, most of the children have no other resource on which to draw. Some children prefer public to school libraries for reasons as diverse as stimulation from a change of scene, attraction to a personality, or the willingness of a librarian to provide answers to questions instead of the materials from which answers must be quarried. Teachers and school librarians often deliberately encourage their pupils to use the public library, partly to obtain supplementary materials that may not be available in the school library, partly on the assumption that the children's librarians have greater leisure in which to deal with individual cases, but more often, and more generally, to encourage familiarity with the public library and to establish habits of use that they hope may continue after the children leave school.

Also appropriately a part of general education is the very considerable use of public libraries by children and youth pursuing a wide diversity of out-of-school, personal interests. There is a constant demand for the "official" rules of football, baseball, tennis, and other sports; for books about well-known figures in the world of sports; and for books that will increase one's skill as a participant. Other leisure-time pursuits are re-

flected in a steady flow of requests for material about the making or collection of objects—things to make with scissors and paste, needle and thread, hammer, plane, and saw; how to make models of windjammers or bombers; manuals of stamps or coins or china or minerals or the thousand and one other objects that delight the hearts of collectors of all ages. Events prompt topical reading of children, as of adults: the advent of the circus provokes a run on books about animals; a popular motion picture sends children to the library for "the story" or for information about the time, the place, or the persons; an expedition to the South Pole stimulates an interest in exploration and adventure; a trip abroad in a child's family will lead him to appropriate books of travel, etc. Scouting heightens curiosity about Indians and pioneer life. As they enter the "awkward age," girls especially begin to look about shyly for books about personal appearance and manners; the boys, for books about occupations. In short, there are few or no aspects of the complicated process of growing up that do not prompt many a youngster to independent reading.

Indeed, encouragement of the free reading of good books for pleasure and the development of discriminating taste would probably be cited by most children's librarians as their greatest contributions to the general education of children and youth. Training for children's librarianship is founded on wide and intimate acquaintance with the extensive literature for young people, and the experienced children's librarian may be expected to know at first hand most of the books in her collection, which may reach three or four thousand titles. Stress is laid on the characteristics of desirable reading for children, suitable editions of children's classics, illustration, format, and other topics growing out of books and literature. Less attention is paid to the process of reading or to the psychology of childhood and adolescence, but the better children's librarians acquire through experience a sufficient practical knowledge of these subjects to make them skilful matchers of books with individual needs and interests of particular readers and friendly counselors in the formation of taste.

To encourage young people to read more books, and better books, children's librarians employ all the devices familiar to adult readers: posters, displays of books or of objects related to books, book lists, and the like. Considerable use is made of pictures; limited use, of recorded music, motion pictures, and other audio-visual aids. The oral telling of stories, old and new, though less popular with this generation than with the last, continues in most libraries of any size. But the bulk of the work consists of individual attention to the requests of children or their par-

ents and of the intimate introduction of the youngsters to books chosen for their appeal to children, as well as for literary merit, in collections arranged according to levels of reading difficulty and the principal subject interests of different age groups.

A typical children's room will contain collections for little children, for intermediates, and for older boys and girls. A sunny corner or ingle is likely to be reserved for the little children, who are provided with miniature furniture and a generous assortment of books with pictures by Brooke, Crane, Berkow, Carrick, Wiese, Wanda Gág, and other illustrators of excellence; books about pixies and brownies; *Little Black Sambo* and *Winnie-the-Pooh* and *Peter Rabbit* and *The Cock, the Mouse, and the Little Red Hen; Mother Goose, A Child's Garden of Verses,* and Edward Lear's *Nonsense Books;* and a few primers carefully chosen for graded vocabulary and illustrations.

Conveniently near the children's corner, sometimes with a small special collection to tempt laggards onward, are intermediate books for the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, built partly on the subject content of the school curriculums and partly on the free reading interests of children. Here may be found *The Arabian Nights' Entertainments,* Aesop's *Fables,* Anderson, Perrault, and Gág's *Tales from Grimm,* Rhys' *Fairy Gold,* Padraic Colum's *Adventures of Odysseus,* Pyle's *Merry Adventures of Robin Hood* and *The Story of King Arthur,* Boutet de Monvel's *Joan of Arc,* and other traditional and historical narratives retold in versions that modern children like. Here may be found *Robinson Crusoe* and *Swiss Family Robinson, Rip Van Winkle, Uncle Remus, Alice in Wonderland, The Jungle Books* and *Just So Stories, Peter and Wendy, Little Women,* and many another tale that will be remembered with affection by parents. Here, too, may be found the cream of newer books for children: Rachel Field's *Hitty,* Will James's *Smoky* and *Young Cowboy,* the delightful nonsense of Dr. Doolittle, and the whimsical Mr. Popper and Mary Poppins.

The rest of the room will be filled with books for children of junior high school age: lusty tales like *The Three Musketeers* and *Treasure Island* and *Kidnapped* and *The Virginian;* perennial favorites like *David Copperfield, Lorna Doone, Quentin Durward, Kenilworth, Tom Sawyer,* and *Huckleberry Finn;* good novels by contemporary writers—Cather's *Shadows on the Rock* and Buchan's *Greenmantle; Pecos Hill, Ol' Paul,* and other "tall tales"; Carl Sandburg's *Abe Lincoln Grows Up,* Benét's *Book of Americans,* and many another biography of proved value; *North to the Orient, Mutiny on the Bounty,* and kindred works of travel and adventure; and a

generous selection of poetry, from Chaucer in modern dress to *This Singing World.*

Public library service for children, as traditionally organized, terminates at this point. There are no objective data to demonstrate the value of what has been done, no cumulative records of reading nor tests of accomplishment; but there is nonetheless substance in the claims that important elements of general education are available to the children who use public libraries habitually, or even occasionally.

When they enter high school, students who continue to use public libraries often are plunged abruptly into the adult departments. The transition is probably easier in the smaller than in the larger libraries, where the necessary readjustments may be very difficult indeed. In place of small collections judiciously chosen in their own interests—collections of the kind to which they have become accustomed in the children's rooms and school libraries—high-school youths all too often are tumbled headlong into the larger collections assembled to meet the diverse demands of the adult community. In nonfiction the books nicely suited to their needs are likely to be thinly sown between works either too inconsequential for their own good or beyond their grasp in technicality. In fiction they are likely to encounter far too many authors whose novels would be excluded from any children's room or school library as falling short of acceptable standards of maturity, significant content, and literary competence. Support of the latter view may be found in a study of reading by high-school students in two New York communities.[3] The publications read were ranked according to a measure of maturity, the more "immature" publications including sentimental and trivial literature. In one town, 42 per cent of such "immature" publications came from the public library, 12 per cent from the school library; in the other town, 53 per cent from the public library, 20 per cent from the school library.

Palliatives have not been lacking. Even a small public library or branch library will have shelves of books reserved for use in the building by students preparing lessons. Books are bought with the requirements of the curriculum specifically in view. Shelves or cases are filled with books carefully selected for recreational reading of high-school students. Some libraries add advisers, usually without special training, but with at least a special interest in the problems and needs of youth. A very few libraries bring books, advisers, and young people together in separate de-

[3] Douglas Waples and Leon Carnovsky, *Libraries and Readers in the State of New York.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

partments intermediate between the children's room and the adult departments and draw on the best features of each. The books and periodicals, drawn chiefly from the adult departments, are chosen to meet two criteria: proved interest to young people and excellence of content and workmanship. As in the children's room, the collection is relatively small, choice, and conveniently arranged. Stress is likely to be placed on fiction, adventurous travel, biography, drama, history, psychology, popular science, vocations, and the contemporary social scene. An informal, friendly atmosphere is striven for in design and appointments, with space for exuberant spirits to run high without distressing older readers. The first requisites of the young people's librarians are firsthand knowledge of the appropriate literature; ability to communicate enthusiasm to youth—including receptiveness to the enthusiasm of youth; and readiness to welcome the crude and boisterous along with the sensitive and shy, the maladjusted as well as the stable and secure, occasional or indifferent readers with readers of mature and well-formed tastes. To encourage a sense of belonging, the young people may be drawn into projects of many kinds, from making posters to helping in the selection of books for purchase. Outside contacts, beginning invariably with the high school, will often include community centers, churches, the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A., 4-H Clubs, art, business, and other commercial schools, the state employment service, the juvenile court—in short, any center about which young people tend to congregate.

Whether or not the public library formally contributes to library service *within* the public schools after the manner described in chapter xii, cordial relations with the school should be, and usually are, a foundation stone in its program. If school libraries are lacking or meager, the public library needs to supply a second best without blocking the way to adequate library service in the schools. If school libraries are good, there is still ample room for co-operative enterprise in supplementing the school libraries, in introducing young people to the resources of the public library and making them at home with them, in encouraging intelligent habits of library use, and, with teachers and school librarians, in helping to bridge the gap between school and employment.

II. Public Library Services to Out-of-School Youth

The need for public library service to out-of-school youth can be outlined briefly in terms of the data secured in 1936–37 from interviews conducted by the staff of the American Youth Commission with 13,528

Maryland youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four.[4] Reading was ranked second as the most time-consuming, leisure-time activity by the boys, first by the girls; and the popularity of reading as the chief recreational activity progressively increased with school grades attained. No evidence is presented concerning the character of the publications read, but the studies of Waples and others suggest that much of it may have been of an indifferent, or even of a very low, order.

Three-fourths of the respondents reported that a public library was available to them. Less than half the youth to whom a library was available had used it at any time during the year preceding the interview, and only one-tenth then had a library book in their possession. Where libraries were available, they were used a little more by female than by male youth, a little more by white than by Negro youth, quite a little more by urban (51 per cent) than by rural youth (31.5 per cent), much more by youth of school age (63 per cent of the sixteen-year-olds) than by the older groups (41 per cent of the twenty-four-year-olds). A progressive use of libraries was found with each grade level attained. For example, less than 3 per cent of the youth who had completed the eighth grade or less had a library book in their possession when they were interviewed, while 25 per cent of the college graduates had books charged against their library cards at the time of the interview.

These facts support two generalizations derived from observation: (1) children and youth tend to stop using libraries when they drop out of school, the largest numbers withdrawing from school at the end of the sixth, eighth or ninth, twelfth, and fourteenth years of schooling; and (2) the longer they stay in school, the more likely young people are to continue to use libraries after their formal education is completed.

Efforts have been made to draw young people into the public library programs of adult education during the critical transition from school to employment. Concerning these efforts nothing more can as yet be said than that they have been scattered, tentative in method, and uncertain in results. This is an important field for experimentation and study on the part of both schools and libraries.

III. Public Library Services to Adult Education

From its very inception the public library has served as an important instrument for the self-education, or continuing education, of an untold

[4] H. M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.

number of adult Americans; but adult education as a conscious movement—perhaps, at times, even a too self-conscious movement—did not begin to take root in public libraries until the middle twenties. As important a single influence as any was the publication of a thoughtful study by William S. Learned,[5] which, though overlaid by a luxuriant special literature,[6] has never been surpassed in clarity, breadth of vision, and incisiveness.

The social value of a public library as an agency of general adult education may be defined as the sum of the effects that flow from the use of the library by its clientele. In this delicate process, as yet little understood, two factors appear to be of greatest importance: the range, character, and intensity of the "needs" experienced by borrowers; and the appropriateness, for the satisfaction of these needs, of a library's collection of books, periodicals, pamphlets, recordings, films, and other artifacts embodying some aspect of our common cultural heritage.

It may be admitted at once that data for analysis in these terms are almost wholly lacking. There has been no investigation, with pretensions to exactness, of the full range of a public library's holdings, but several investigators have attempted judgments of value about the books that public librarians have assembled for the choice of readers. The usual procedure is to compile a checklist of books assumed to be of a kind that readers might reasonably expect to find in a well-stocked library. The books held by the libraries studied are then checked on the list and a score computed by one of several means.[7] The range in scores, from very high to very low, shows that library patrons have access to collections differing greatly in recency of publication, cost, cruciality, relative importance, or whatever quality is chosen for investigation. The findings to date, which have usefully emphasized the unevenness of library-book collections, will not support a more exact generalization concerning the effectiveness of public library holdings for general education.

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[5] *The American Public Library and the Diffusion of Knowledge.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1924.

[6] See especially John Chancellor (ed.), *Helping Adults To Learn.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1939; Alvin Johnson, *The Public Library: A People's University.* New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1938; L. R. Wilson (ed.), *The Role of the Library in Adult Education.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937.

[7] For a representative example see Leon Carnovsky, "Measurements in Library Service," in C. B. Joeckel (ed.), *Current Issues in Library Administration.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

Who, precisely, the 26,000,000 persons are that have registered as borrowers of public libraries nobody knows for certain, but scattered studies suggest that they are not a true cross-section of the population of the areas served. There are proportionately more professional workers and clerks than in the population as a whole; many more students; and fewer shopkeepers and salesmen, skilled tradesmen and tradeswomen, and unskilled laborers. Library borrowers differ further from the public at large in that the proportion of younger to older readers is greater; and, as one might expect, the educational background of library readers is higher than that of the population as a whole. There is no hint that the interests of this self-selected body of readers fall short of the full gamut of human aspirations. There is a scattering and meager evidence to suggest that readers are drawn to libraries, first, by a yearning for respite; second, by a desire for knowledge ranging from the immediate, concrete, and specific, to cosmic eternity.

Recent research draws a very unflattering picture of the public library as an agency influential in motivating good reading. Greatly simplified, it shows, in descending numbers, housewives, stenographers, clerks, and semiskilled workers chiefly devoted to "light loves," westerns, adventure, and mysteries; students fulfilling school assignments; miscellaneous followers of 'best-seller' ballyhoo; and independent readers, chiefly from the professions but with a scattering from all ranks and stations, concerned with substantial works both of fiction and nonfiction. These studies have served as wholesome correctives to indiscriminate and exaggerated representations of all public library service as *ipso facto* educational. They have been drawn too largely from small libraries and the branches of large systems to present a valid sample of the full range of library use, and they tell us nothing about the 'best practice' upon which the emphasis of this yearbook is intended to fall.

A typical metropolitan library will consist of a central library, near the heart of the city, supplemented by branches situated conveniently to the residential districts at intervals of a mile or two. The branch libraries purposely emphasize books in greatest demand, but a good-sized branch offers a book collection covering many fields in charge of a staff chosen for general education, breadth of reading, skill in the use of books, and sympathetic interest in the problems about which readers wish help.

The central library is a reservoir for the entire system. Central libraries of even moderate size may have one or more special collections—on business or technology or fine arts—overseen by a specialist in that field, and

several libraries have been largely or wholly organized around subject reading-rooms in charge of advisers, thoroughly conversant with the literature of their field and trained to respond to the particular requests of individual readers for facts or general information, for a "good" book about a subject, or for a course of extended reading. A music division, for example, will contain a substantial collection of works for ready reference, current and bound files of musical journals, books on the history and the theory of music, biographies and works of criticism, sheet music, scores of choral and chamber music, scores for orchestra and band, a piano in a room euphemistically styled "soundproof," recordings in variety—with other soundproof rooms where they may be heard and followed with score—a bulletin board announcing concerts and other events of musical interest, and a vertical file for pamphlets, clippings, and other oddments that may provide the only available clue to the answer of some subsequent question.

In the last century, when books were dear and hard to get at any price, librarians took understandable pride in the facts of acquisition and possession. With the turn of the century, and especially after World War I, more and more emphasis was placed on interpretation of the collections. That a dictionary catalog on cards is the "key" that unlocks a library to every user is an ancient dogma in need of revision. Public librarians are paying more attention—but still not enough—to printed directions, proper labeling of rooms and cases, and other guides to what may be to many readers a thoroughly baffling maze. A great deal of reliance—probably too much—is placed on book lists, especially on miscellaneous and unannotated lists. Interpretation, as well as motivation, is further attempted through posters, exhibits, small special displays, and the like. The best of these are pointed at well-defined interests of recognizable groups of readers, and they are executed with both taste and discrimination; but display, a useful adjunct to librarianship, if not an essential art, is all too often attempted at a level of amateurishness that would not be tolerated for a moment in the catalog.

Such means of impersonal interpretation are supplemented, but not generously enough, with personal contacts between librarian and reader. A service early provided and now all but universal is the reference librarian, who helps readers with problems that may extend from simple fact-finding to fairly elaborate documentary research. A somewhat later and less competent general advisory service grew up about the entire stock of circulating books. A great advance was achieved when the ap-

propriate "reference" and circulating books were combined in the subject departents already noticed in passing. Departmentation by subject is shifting the basis of public librarianship from a knowledge of general bibliography and the technical routines based upon it (comparable to the older concept of "methods" in teaching) to a comprehensive knowledge of some field of human activity. To a sophisticated clientele who know their way about libraries, subject departments offer the inestimable advantages of books competently chosen, brought together in one place, well arranged for convenient use, and skilfully serviced by librarians who are masters of a field in their own right.

The subject departments, however, lie on, or over, the border of higher education. Less satisfactory is the organization of libraries for general adult education—the selection, arrangement, and interpretation of materials of general interest under the supervision of persons demonstrably competent to service them. Many libraries maintain a browsing-room, an open-shelf room, or a popular library intended to meet this need, but in the opinion of the writer they have not attained a level of technical excellence comparable to that of the better high schools. The field of elementary adult education has scarcely been brought within the scope of public libraries at all, at least not on a systematic basis. There are, however, occasional exceptions, such as the use of public libraries by educated foreigners learning to read English and personal contacts established with "slow readers" by especially gifted advisers.

Acting on the principle that many adults require the stimulus of group activity to spur them on to intellectual growth, public librarians have taken it on as a form of public relations, or as an occasional and unconsidered sideline, or as an integral part of the library's educational program. Lecture-rooms have been a standard feature of public library buildings for fifty years, and dreary barns a great many of them are. In several recent buildings the lecture-room has given way to a community theater with complete stage and motion-picture equipment. Also now fairly common are smaller, informally furnished rooms for meetings or group discussion. These may be maintained chiefly as community facilities for use by outside groups. Even so, they are likely to be used at least sporadically for events originating within the library, for few librarians seem able to resist the temptation to dabble in lectures, concerts, forums, book reviews, discussions, and the like—forms of educational activity for which a great many of them, it must be admitted, have no training and little talent.

This is not to say that there are not to be found in public libraries distinguished examples of educational service over and above the traditional forms of supplying and interpreting books and other materials. Libraries without formal galleries have nonetheless arranged excellent art exhibits, through the national booking agencies, perhaps, or by giving the best local artists opportunities, not otherwise available, to show their work. More and more, libraries are giving concerts of recorded music, with or without interpretative comments. Tentative ventures with motion pictures have been stimulated of late by a movement for "film forums." Lecture or lyceum series well above the usual women's club level have been sustained over a period of years. Book reviews, of inexhaustible popularity with some audiences, are frequently given with professional finish, and they have recently been aired over local stations to the mutual satisfaction of librarian and station manager. The more difficult art of discussing books or ideas has fewer masters, but it has flourished vigorously under skilful leaders of groups from the least to the most sophisticated. Study circles in the European sense, though seldom found, are prized where they have struck root. These and other things like them have been done, and done well, in more than one library.

The concept of community organization, imported from social work, has been much discussed and somewhat applied. In a few libraries, field agents have called on officials of business and manufacturing firms, schools, churches, and other social institutions, unions, parent-teacher associations, men's and women's clubs, and other voluntary associations in great variety. The relations thus established may cease with the proffer and acceptance of vague offers of co-operation or service; they may extend to publicity for the library; they may lead to help with planning a project or program, the loan of special materials, or the establishment of frequently changed deposits; they may in time deepen into permanent channels for ascertaining and meeting daily needs, particularly of municipal and school officials.

By way of the general movement of adult education, the concept of community organization has led to the formation of urban, county, state, and regional councils or associations for adult education. Public librarians have played a relatively conspicuous part in the formation and membership of these councils, which usually take as one of their aims the integration and rounding out of all adult education in the community. The need for collaboration toward this end has not as yet been markedly diminished.

By way of the public schools, the concept of community organization has led the Lincoln Library of Springfield, Illinois, to establish a community school for adults on the assumption that mutual advantages may accrue to both school and library. Study groups and classes, which carry no credit, are conducted on ten consecutive Monday evenings in the autumn and again in the spring. Students, ranging in age from sixteen to eighty-eight, have been attracted from more than a hundred vocations. Leaders are drawn from the local high school, from nearby colleges, and from business and the professions. The library is utilized by the school staff in the preparation of appropriate book lists and in the "advertisement" and supply of assigned or suggested reading. The school activities, on the other hand, direct students to the library, where some increase in new borrowers and in general circulation has been apparent.

Even from so brief an account it should be evident that during the last two decades public librarians have expended much ingenuity on devices, programs, and organization, and that careful students have begun to provide stable foundations on which to build. More of both are needed if Dr. Learned's vision of the public library as the central intelligence service of every town and city, as familiar to every inhabitant as the local post office and as inevitably patronized, is to be realized.

SECTION III

THE SCHOOL PERSONNEL AND LIBRARY SERVICE

CHAPTER VI

THE PUPIL AND LIBRARY USE

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The pupil of today enjoys an enriched and vitalized curriculum largely because of the library. Its services have assumed their true and rightful position as an integral part of the modern school. Guidance in locating and organizing ideas, stimulation in building interests and habits which lead to independent self-education and voluntary study, and activities which provide enjoyable experiences with books are major responsibilities of the teacher. The librarian being included in the term "teacher," this modern school-worker cannot discharge her responsibilities without varied and organized reading and visual materials. Not only is the library an instrument for the education of youth; but if rightful attitudes and adequate skills are developed through a program of general education, the library continues as a tool of learning for the typical adult throughout his life.

This chapter is focused on the pupil and the use which he makes of the library: Why and how do pupils use the library? What are the things pupils need to know? What part do pupils play in supplying library service? How can library service be evaluated in terms of pupil behavior? The assumption is made here that our schools are endeavoring to give all learners these common library experiences.

I. WHY AND HOW DO PUPILS USE THE LIBRARY?

The pupil goes to the library with a purpose in mind. He uses its resources (1) to locate information and ideas which will enable him to meet the demands of the classroom, (2) to explore and discover new interests, and (3) to solve certain personality problems and difficulties.

1. To Meet the Demands of the Classroom

There are few subjects in the modern curriculum wherein the pupils' attention is focused exclusively on a single textbook. Class study is usually organized around some major problem, issue, topic, principle, or generalization. This is true whether the curriculum is divided into distinct subject-matter fields, as in the typical senior high school, or is more generalized, having less distinct boundary lines between subjects, as in the elementary school. The knowledge, skills, and understandings necessary for successful work under such a lesson organization cannot ordinarily be found in any one textbook. This does not mean that the well-organized text is to be discarded. Textbooks, properly used, offer valuable aids in giving continuity and organization to materials of instruction.

The use of library materials must fit in naturally with the plan of the class. Wrightstone[1] identifies six steps which are usually operating in any classroom situation where the teacher attempts to adapt his teaching procedure to pupils' needs and concerns. At times these steps may overlap, and some of them may be relatively obscure, but usually they are present in the activities of the modern classroom. Because they reveal the origin of the need for library materials, they are included here. They are: "(1) stimulation or identification of interest; (2) planning in terms of the pupils' questions, problems, and methods of work; (3) investigation and research to obtain facts, regardless of their source or subject-matter allocations; (4) integration of the content into meaningful reports, exhibits, etc.; (5) culmination and sharing of a solution to the problems or projects; and (6) evaluation or appraisal of the outcomes of the project." It is in step *three* that the library usually plays an important role. However, success in the use of the library depends to a large measure on a planning period indicated by Wrightstone as step *two*. It is during the second phase that the needs of the class for study material are clarified.

A brief tour of the classrooms of any modern school system will disclose many illustrations of how pupils use the library to meet the demands of classroom activities.

When a fifth grade of a large city school reassembled after the summer vacation, the pupils found several newcomers in the group. Almost with-

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[1] J. Wayne Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938.

out exception, the young strangers came from small towns and rural areas. During a morning discussion period one of the new pupils let it be known that he did not care for city life. This opinion had the approval of the majority of the newcomers. The drinking water was thought not to be good, some believing it was not as pure as country water. It was thought there were no interesting places to play and that it was difficult to get fresh vegetables. These were a few of the dissatisfactions voiced which city children could not answer to the newcomers' satisfaction.

Under the teacher's guidance, the children listed the questions about city life on the blackboard. The group discussed sources of help and information. The librarian was asked to come to the room to confer with the group. She told them about library materials which might be helpful and gave them some instruction on how books are arranged on library shelves, how to locate reference books, and how books are borrowed and circulated. The next day the school library was visited, and after school hours certain class representatives went to the public library and to the university library. On the third day pamphlets, books, magazines, films, and slides related to city life appeared in the classroom. Pupils consulted indexes and skimmed references. Whenever a helpful article was found, it was listed on the blackboard as a part of a bibliography. References were organized under such topics as water supply, sewage disposal, parks and playgrounds, and transportation. The teacher showed the pupils the correct form for listing their references. Finally, individual children and small groups of children chose or were assigned topics for study and investigation, and for the next few days the children worked on their topics, reading and organizing information. Under the teacher's guidance, they received help in using a table of contents, in using an index, in making notes, and in constructing diagrams and maps. Then reports were given and the results integrated. The whole project was appraised by the pupils as to the extent to which important questions had been answered and additional information acquired.

A small group of third-grade children were gathered about a table in the school library, busily reading and conferring on information they were getting from some books. On questioning the pupils, it was found that the goldfish, turtle, and snails in their classroom aquarium were not in the best of health and that these children had been selected to find out what could be done to improve the aquarium and to give the pets a more healthful diet. With the help of the teacher, they had used Rue's *Subject Index to Readers* to locate several books which contained information on

aquariums. Later, they were planning to take their ideas and information to the supervisor of science to get her advice and help.

Another group of pupils were at work in a corner of the library on plans for a mural painting for their classroom. They had discussed the idea in their art class and had selected a theme for the mural. Now they were using the resources of the library to plan the different scenes and to secure information on design and costuming.

Still another group came to the library in connection with a class plan to give an auditorium program on "The Three Americas." They used the library to locate information on life in Central and South America and to secure illustrations of music and literature typical of some of the Latin-American countries.

A group of ninth-grade mathematics pupils discussed the importance of money in their everyday life. Questions arose concerning the monies used in different parts of the world, the history of money, and especially the development of our own monetary system. The librarian was called in to explain certain reference materials and indicated that there was much more material in the library that would be useful for the study of money. After a two-day study of these references, the class members were ready to report their findings through the use of diagrams and other written material, and to present some mathematical problems.

The class then decided that it would discuss the matter of budgeting the family income. This included a study of planning a budget for various-sized families, the advantages and disadvantages of instalment-buying, and other related subjects. The pupils by this time were acquainted with the library so that much independent research was carried on there and various problems were brought before the class for their solution. Similar problems in statistics and arithmetic related to budgeting were brought out in this class, leading to good functional learning.

An eighth-grade English class wished to discuss their dogs and stories that they had read about dogs. Kodak pictures of dogs were brought to the class and anecdotes were told by the class members. The librarian was called in to indicate to the pupils the resources of the library for the study of dog life. The librarian explained the use of the card catalog and how books are arranged on the shelves. For example, *Lassie, Come Home*, by Knight, is listed under "Dog Stories," "Knight," and *Lassie, Come Home*. They learned that they could find any book if they knew the title, the subject, or the author. The librarian indicated that the *Readers' Guide* may be used to find suitable dog stories in periodicals. Pupils talked

about the books they liked. Since the pupils could keep a book for one week only, most of this seventh grade did read a dog story from the library. The class was encouraged to go to the branch library, also, for dog stories.

Juniors and Seniors in the high schools at times carry on formal or informal debates for which they need to use bibliographies and other works of reference. The library is the center for this research.

In order to stimulate library activity on the part of his biology class, a tenth-grade biology teacher took the class to the library where an exhibit of different books had been arranged on a large table. On the following day a selected group from the class was allowed to browse among these books. They reported back to the class the contents of books especially suited to classroom discussion. More than a hundred books were included in this report, and other members of the class were able to note the books of greatest interest to them. Over a period of two weeks all members of the class had access to the books in which they were interested. Since these books represented several levels of reading, from simple to very difficult, this illustrates how the library helps teachers to meet the problem of individual differences as well as to enrich instruction for the class as a whole.

In a speech class it was arranged to have the library used two periods a week for six weeks, during which pupils looked up material and prepared dramatic readings and abstracts from good fiction. Pupils consulted the catalog and the *Readers' Guide*. They did their own cutting and preparing of material. Some of the finished readings were given before invited audiences of teachers and students, and a few were presented in the auditorium of the school.

A Spanish class chose a committee of pupils to see what good extra reading was available for their class. Spanish literature which might be beyond the actual translation ability of the class was listed by the group and presented to the class. In connection with this reading, a map of flags of the various South-American countries was constructed and made a permanent part of the library display.

A junior-college class in a course designed to co-ordinate various arts was working on a project which had as its purpose the appreciation and understanding of the historical and artistic qualities of the local architecture. The files of the public and college libraries afforded numerous writings and pictures which were most helpful. Many sketches were made by the students themselves. The description, use, and history of

many buildings were annotated and placed beside the drawings in a report that was valuable not only for the use of this class but also as a permanent addition to the library. Without a library operating to collect local materials over a period of years, such valuable study would not be possible.

All of the groups described in the preceding paragraphs were using the library for a purpose which was real to them. Not only were they getting information and ideas that would help them to solve their problems, but they were also developing an appreciation of the library as an aid to learning. It is obvious, too, that the teacher's and librarian's guidance helped pupils to develop needed library skills.

When the classroom library services of large schools become numerous, as indeed they should, it is wise to see that plans and schedules are worked out to the mutual benefit of all classes and other library functions. Early in any semester teachers and pupils, after determining the major problems that will be studied for a period of six weeks or longer, should present to the librarian a report on the class needs. This co-operation makes it possible for the library to schedule the use of materials. Such an arrangement is made each semester in the diversified reading program of tenth-grade English in Minneapolis. A schedule for the use of library materials is made for the semester by pupils, teachers, and librarians working together. It is only to be expected that the nature of the problem and the time for its study will be somewhat determined by the best possible schedule that can be provided.

In one large city junior high school the various projects in social studies to be carried on by each class are outlined during the early weeks of the semester and submitted to the librarian, who allots her time and materials to the projects in a manner to avoid confusion and duplication. Teachers meet with librarians to plan the most efficient way to use the materials they will need. Pupils are often brought into this planning.

Units on current social problems are taught today in many Senior classes. Materials that support these units need to be current and available in quantity. Where many class sections are engaged in such study, library service needs to be staggered so that all classes will have the maximum use of good materials. Such arrangements have been made in Minneapolis senior high schools in meeting the needs of the pupils in their study of vocational and educational planning.

An unsatisfactory program is the hit-and-miss arrangement where all teachers collect materials on their own, or where the librarian tries des-

perately to meet the many demands of teachers without such previous planning. Elementary or secondary classroom teaching is no longer a one-teacher, one-room affair. This efficient type of whole-building or whole-district use of materials insures a library service in harmony with the best classroom practices.[2]

2. To Explore and Discover New Interests

The foregoing illustrative material has emphasized the type of classroom situation which requires the pupil to use the library in order to find the answer to a question, to solve a problem, to illustrate a principle, or to get directions on constructing or making something. While such problem-solving situations are both stimulating and desirable, the pupil should develop a deep and abiding interest in reading for the personal satisfaction and help it gives him on his own. There are many class and out-of-class experiences which stimulate pupils to use the library for more individualized reasons than those mentioned so far. Even at the early elementary-school level many children have individual interests and curiosities which, if properly guided, take them to the library.

A high-school pupil recently remarked: "The library has assisted me in my musical life and has added to my knowledge about musical leaders, operas, and many other things concerning music." This statement of a Senior in high school concerning her "musical life" indicates that she has felt a need for knowing more than any music class can give or, perhaps, should give and that in a personal way she has sought to develop this interest. This aspect of education holds a more significant place in educational planning today than it did in the past. In many cities, particularly in the elementary and junior high schools, opportunity to develop these personal interests has been arranged by giving specially scheduled periods for this work as part of the daily program. Some city schools have free-activity hours each week. Such personal interests as free reading, dramatics, and creative writing are made possible only by a fully equipped, well-organized, and effectively administered library. The more of these personal interests teachers and librarians can nourish, the closer they are to fulfilling the democratic purposes of education.

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[2] Nora E. Beust, "The Use of the School Library," *Newer Instructional Practices of Promise*, chap. xi. Twelfth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. Washington: Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1939.

A free opportunity to browse among books is planned in Little Rock junior high schools. One room is equipped and organized in each building to promote "free reading." All pupils are scheduled for a period in this room. They read whatever they wish. There are no required readings, no book reports. Games, contests, talks, playlets, dramatizations, and reading aloud allow for oral activities. Rooms for free reading are large, accommodating groups of 90 to 140 pupils. Mimeographed instructions and lists are prepared by the librarian and used by all pupils. All children keep book cards, and they may reserve the book for each free period until it is finished. They are proud of their reading-room, and books are used to a maximum. They often mend their own books. Guidance is used only when the reading card shows the need of it or when the child asks for direction. Guidance is always designed to give the child an opportunity to choose. Reading cards help to locate children who do not finish books. It has been found in this arrangement that almost 100 per cent of the children in the junior high school like to read. Of the 760 children using a "free-reading" room, 750 said they enjoyed it. The effectiveness of the Little Rock program is indicated in the following comment.

"It is the opinion of those in charge of the experiment who have watched it closely and carefully, that while free reading has not solved all the problems in creating a wholesome, sane appetite for worth-while reading it does seem to be a significant move in the right direction."[3]

Teachers of English in the Hutchins Intermediate School in Detroit have reported[4] favorable results of free-reading privileges for their pupils. The children were asked to keep records of title, author, dates the book was begun and finished, and whether they considered the book poor, good, or excellent. Lists were not checked, but recognition was given through a publicity campaign conducted by the school library. At the end of the semester, 1,115 lists, containing an average of 13 books per pupil, were handed in. Although 98 per cent of the titles consisted of fiction, some good books of nonfiction were read. Indications are that teachers are not successful in stimulating reading of biography and that few books in biography are written that appeal to adolescents. Many classics were listed as the most popular. Very few cheap or shoddy books were read.

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[3] Lois Merrill Griffin, "Free Reading in the Junior High School," *Wilson Library Bulletin*, X (November, 1935), 191.

[4] Florence Cleary, "Recreational Reading in Junior High School," *The Nation's Schools*, XVI (July, 1935), 31–33.

Problem children read very little, some not handing in lists. Few books were characterized as poor. Many books which appear on teachers' and librarians' lists did not appear on the lists of children. Similarly planned experiences are offered to pupils in all Minneapolis schools.

Opportunity to explore among reading materials has made it possible for some children to find their special interests at their own reading level as nothing else can do. Even here, however, there is need for the subtle guidance of a teacher or librarian who knows children and is acquainted with many materials. These exploring periods need to be followed with conferences or interviews so that the interest that has been stimulated will be nourished and guided. The additional education which comes from a guidance program after exploration makes it hard to justify the expenditure of much time and use of the library in long periods of "free reading" or browsing without an effective follow-up service.

There is danger of interpreting individual interests in a stereotyped manner, classifying them as art, music, or sports, and proceeding to collect materials in these general fields. No matter how necessary this classification is in the organization of classes and subjects, it is to be avoided in selecting material to nourish individual curiosities and interests.

Lists such as those published by the National Council of English Teachers and the American Library Association are most helpful in anticipating the probable reading needs of pupils. Such lists should always be used as guides, keeping in mind the reading problems of the community and of individual pupils.

3. To Solve Certain Personality Problems

Aside from the obvious expressed needs of normal children, there are many hidden drives and conflicts that challenge the attention of sympathetic and intelligent school people. True educators cannot be satisfied with judging library services in terms of quantity of pages read or quality of publications. Emphasis should be placed on the relation of the pupil's development to what he reads. The social significance of the reading will be taken care of if the child's personal problems are interpreted in their social setting. In this connection we can assume that there are normal children in the school who will need to be guided to certain reading materials or guided away from other types of reading. A boy whose interest in aviation results in a too narrow concentration of reading can be given guidance, not away from his interest, but into many other areas. This is particularly true in the junior high school, where narrow interests can

result in too limited reading. A girl in the ninth grade was observed to be reading books of a sentimental nature, comparable to the usual episode radio program which she also liked. Her conversation was narrow and her friends thought she was somewhat queer. The teacher talked about this pupil with the librarian, and she was given books of somewhat the same nature but more mature and of better quality. Her reading interest gradually broadened, as reflected by her voluntary withdrawals from the library. Overstimulating and morbid stories can well nourish or lead to serious personality problems that need the attention of those well acquainted with reading material.

In rare cases of children who need more social life or healthful exercise and whose avid reading habits tend to exclude friends and out-of-door play, it is justifiable to guide such children away from reading and into social situations. In most cases, however, it is a matter of guidance toward other types of reading.

II. What Are the Things Pupils Need To Know?

There are numerous bulletins and handbooks listing the minimum requirements of basic skills and knowledges needed at various school levels. These helpful publications serve as guides and check lists for teachers and librarians. However excellent they may be, they are inadequate unless they are used in a plan of instruction based on good principles of teaching. Any teaching of library skills and knowledge must be functional, continuous, and individualized.

Library instruction is functional when it is part of situations which are real, interesting, and natural to the pupil and which call for activities within the range of his ability. These situations, in addition to being real to the pupil, give the alert teacher an opportunity to observe and to note the library skills for which groups and individuals need more training. Classroom situations serving this purpose are described in preceding paragraphs.

The fifth-grade project reported above furnished an excellent illustration of the way in which the teacher guided activities calling for the use of the library in such a way as to result in definite learning of library skills. While the pupils were at work locating and organizing information or ideas related to city services, not only did the teacher give help and guidance to individuals, but he also noted the skills and abilities in which individuals and groups were deficient. Later, he provided definite lessons designed to overcome these deficiencies.

A functional program is by no means a casual one. Real library situations are used as opportunities to guide and help pupils in carrying on their work. However, there are certain limitations to the amount of instruction that can be given in this manner. Frequently pupils' needs are only noted, and specific instruction is given in a later class period planned for this purpose.

Library instruction should be continuous, because the skills which are required at different school levels and in different subjects vary considerably. Also, proficiency in the use of the library cannot be fully developed in any one grade or level or in any one subject. The teaching of library skills to be most effective must be considered a matter of slow, continuous growth. Therefore, pupils are introduced to the library and develop certain very elementary skills in its use even in the kindergarten grade, and repeated instruction and guidance must continue through the senior high school, expanding and deepening in relation to the growing needs of pupils.

Assuming that many library skills are learned as part of the work of the classroom, by following individual interest, and by exploring and seeking aid for personal problems, there is a core of basic skills which all pupils should learn and which may need special attention. A plan for teaching this minimum must be part of a good school program. These lessons, obviously, start in the first six grades with such topics as: how to turn pages, how to hold a book for reading so that the light falls on the page without making shadows and so that the book is the correct distance from the reader's eyes. As one writer states, "early experiences can be very natural and simple even on a skill basis."

In a Minneapolis bulletin[5] designed to guide the reading of the first four years of the elementary school, the first visit to the library is described as a period in which pupils become acquainted with the location of books, have some practice in using the table of contents, and participate in various alphabetical games.

This same guide suggests that children keep class records of books read and of their reactions to them. This recording technique once learned is an aid in learning any classifying system. It is further suggested that children learn the need for the sensible care of books by keeping books in order, having clean hands before using books, using care in

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[5] Minneapolis Public Schools, *A Guide for the Teaching in the First Four Years of the Elementary School.* Minneapolis: Board of Education, 1940.

opening books, taking care in turning pages, returning books to the right places, and seeing that books are arranged neatly on the tables or shelves.

The New York State bulletin[6] suggests that, before the end of the sixth grade, children learn the parts of books, as the title-page, copyright date, table of contents, and index. The making of bibliographies, together with some practice in using the Dewey system, is recommended. The reference tools, such as *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia, World Almanac,* atlases, and gazeteers, should be used with skill at this level.

In Minneapolis the upper elementary grades provide practice in the location and organization of materials found in the library through the use of booklets prepared for the improvement of reading.[7]

On the junior high school level definite provision should be made for giving each pupil certain basic experiences in the use of the library. In order that no pupil may miss these experiences, a definite period should be assigned to the work, fitting in well with the lesson plans of the classroom teacher. A typical plan is described as follows:[8]

A Minimum Experience for Library Instruction in
Junior High Schools of Minneapolis

SEVENTH GRADE (THREE CLASS HOURS)

1. Introduction to the school library. Every pupil should be introduced to the school library at a class period as near the beginning of the semester of his entrance to the school as it is possible to arrange
2. A lesson on the arrangement of books in a library and the use of the card catalog
3. A lesson on the use of encyclopedias and reference books

EIGHTH GRADE (TWO CLASS HOURS)

1. A continuation of the seventh-grade lesson on classification and the card catalog
2. A continuation of the lesson on reference books

NINTH GRADE (TWO CLASS HOURS)

1. A lesson on the use of the *Readers' Guide*
2. A continuation of the lesson on reference books and the card catalog

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[6] University of the State of New York, *English: A Handbook for Teachers in the Elementary Schools.* Albany, New York: State Education Department, 1933.

[7] Minneapolis Public Schools, *Helps To Improve Your Reading—Organization* (Books X, Y, Z). Minneapolis: Board of Education, January, 1942.

[8] Minneapolis Public Schools, *Classroom Instruction, Pupil Use of Books, and the Junior High School Library.* Minneapolis: Board of Education, 1942.

Formal Instruction

Every junior high school pupil should have instruction in the use of the school library. A plan should be developed within the individual school as to the subject areas where these lessons will be presented. Since such lessons present a repetition of skills rather than of content material, they might well be presented in all subject areas without disadvantage to the pupil. However, in order to be sure that every pupil receives this minimum number of hours of formal instruction, each school should plan the schedule either for the English classes or the social studies classes, or for the science classes. The lessons should be planned cooperatively by the librarian and the teachers in the chosen subject area and should be closely correlated with some classroom activity.

Informal Instruction

In addition to this rather formal instruction indicated above, there will be, of course, constant informal and incidental activities which lead individual pupils and groups of pupils to the use of library materials under the guidance of the teacher. It is to be expected that in the classroom itself and under the direction of the teacher the pupil will learn such skills as the use of the index, note-taking, evaluation of materials, organization of materials, and the use of the dictionary and will receive the necessary stimulation which leads to the enjoyment of reading.

In a school system where pupils change to a senior high school building, it is necessary to acquaint them with a new library at the tenth-grade level. The library activities in the senior high schools vary as do the teaching methods, the classroom programs, and the community backgrounds. No outline or course should cover the exact procedures for all schools, although it is very helpful to have outlined the anticipated needs at this level. Tenth-grade lessons in library use may appear in social studies classes in one school, in English classes in another school, while similar training may be provided in a varied program reaching into a number of subject areas in still another school. There may be differences, too, in the amount of time given and in the library skills included. In every case, however, the librarian should feel responsible for planning so that *all tenth-grade* pupils will have practice in the use of library skills to meet the demands of the classroom. Beyond this grade level individual instruction may be the most effective.

A twelfth-grade activity which the librarian has learned to watch for and use both to the advantage of the library and of the pupil is the rather long written report, which may be an individual assignment in a science or English class, or it may be a group activity in a social-studies class.

This report often involves the preparation of a bibliography. The librarian works with the class while plans are in the making. Group instruction is given if needed, individual direction is given as the pupils work with the library tools. In many cases the librarian evaluates the bibliography for the teacher or for the group.

In all of the senior high schools in Minneapolis the librarian attempts to include some activity which will give the twelfth-grade pupils worthwhile associations with the public library branch in the community. It has developed in some districts into planned visits by classes. In one school it has taken the form of an assignment by the English teachers which required the use of library materials beyond the resources of the school library. In another school an invitation was given to all the senior high school classes to come to the library clubroom to hear lectures by local scientists on topics of interest. The classes went as a group at the time of the class period, since the public library was close to the school. Opportunities are continually being made to give the pupils normal experiences with the local public library facilities which may be the future source of help and enjoyment to them in their reading. Other communities have developed similar plans that aid in giving older pupils an appreciation of what the community offers in the way of further education and good leisure-time reading.

III. What Part Do Pupils Play in Supplying Library Service?

It is the best part of education to locate practical activities which contribute to pupils' own education and which add to the efficiency of the school. Organizing such services should always be controlled by educational principles, and the time and efforts of pupils should never be exploited.

In the elementary school, teachers have been very successful in guiding committees of pupils in collecting and filing clippings, pictures, etc. Classroom libraries are often handled successfully by properly selected pupils.

In the Jefferson Junior High School of Minneapolis, selected pupils are encouraged to choose library work in place of their personal interest or hobby activities. Homeroom teachers recommend the best pupils from the many volunteers. The library is supplied with two or three such workers each period. They help with charging, shelving, and mending books, putting away magazines, filing, stamping books, pasting pockets,

collecting passes at the door, checking with study halls concerning library passes. These pupils meet once a week as a "Library Service Club" and help in building interest in the services and growth of the library.

A common practice among senior high schools is to schedule periods in selected pupils' programs for library service. In one city, half a credit is given toward graduation for such activities. The actual library help is not offered so much to develop vocational skills as to give opportunities for education and exploration in library materials and organization. A description of these activities is given in detail in a Minneapolis bulletin.[9]

Units in this course include: the plan of the library, library housekeeping, the book, arrangement, card catalog, periodicals, filing, reference books, publicity, reading and owning books, and oppportunities in library work. In all, about one hundred different activities are promoted. A well-balanced and thorough program is assured by the giving of an examination covering many of the activities.

IV. How Can Library Service Be Evaluated in Terms of Pupil Behavior?

In evaluating the effectiveness of library service, a consideration of individual differences and activities is a most important responsibility. It is to be expected that great differences in the attitude of pupils toward the library, as well as in ability and inclination to use it, will be found. In welcoming and recognizing these differences and the complex factors that go to make them up, teachers and librarians are giving the same consideration to individual differences in relation to library use as they would in the teaching of any skill, ability, or appreciation.

In addition to the usual differences of intelligence, habits, and temperament, there is the wide range in home backgrounds which exerts even a greater influence on pupils' attitudes toward books than toward some other instruments of instruction. It is up to educators to recognize the deep-lying influence of a home where books of quality are ever present, as contrasted to the home where there is little or no reading material. It is equally wise to recognize the boy or girl who, because of no available home reading, becomes mentally starved for such opportunities. Biography and fiction are filled with such examples.

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[9] Minneapolis Public Schools. *Pupil Assistants in the School Library—A Tentative Course of Study.* Minneapolis: Board of Education, 1935.

Instruction should always be evaluated in terms of real change in pupil behavior. The importance of guiding toward genuine and permanent tastes in good reading habits and sincere appreciation of books cannot be overemphasized. Young children and adolescents many times feign such interest by drawing out books beyond their ability, because of the seeming prestige of such reading. Burch[10] found that for leisure-time reading junior and senior high school pupils, when given free access to books, chose books the content of which was three years below the pupils' reading ability. In Minneapolis recently, two thousand twelfth-grade pupils were asked to list three books of fiction they had read during the year and also three books of fiction they would like to own. When judged for quality on the scale used in library research, it was found that the pupils desired to own books of much lower quality than those read under the guidance of teachers and librarians.[11] This does not mean that we should encourage the reading of low-quality books. It does, however, mean that we should be deeply appreciative and realistic in evaluating the attitudes of our pupils toward reading.

The teacher should evaluate his own library service in terms of pupil behavior. Keeping an eye on the pupil, the teacher may ask himself the following questions to determine whether or not he is guiding pupil activities so as to stimulate and educate in the effective, permanent use of the library.

1. Am I planning worth-while situations which seem purposeful to the pupils and which require them to use books and other materials in the library?
2. When a child needs to find the answer to a question, am I making full use of opportunities by showing him how to make books and the school library serve him best, by giving guidance in the use of the table of contents and the index, in locating books in the library, in using reference books, and in using periodical literature?
3. Am I reaching indifferent and prejudiced readers by: (*a*) Guiding such pupils to reading in connection with some personal activity, interest, or hobby? (*b*) Seeking their help in selecting books, planning library displays, etc.? (*c*) Ac-

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[10] Mary Crowell Burch, "Determination of a Content of the Course in Literature of a Suitable Difficulty for Junior and Senior High School Students," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, IV (August–September, 1928), 163–332. Worcester, Massachusetts: Clark University Press, 1928.

[11] Minneapolis Public Schools, "A Survey of Fiction and Periodical Reading of 12A Students in Minneapolis." Division of Instruction, Curriculum Bulletin No. 607. Minneapolis: Board of Education, October, 1938.

quainting them with books that are as thrilling as any movie? (*d*) Acquainting them with books which will show them how to do better the things they most want to do, as train a dog, make a toy airplane, etc.? (*e*) Helping those who are poor readers to find books they can really read with ease? (*f*) Respecting every child's choice of reading matter and attempting to build good taste in reading by beginning where he is?

4. Am I arousing an interest in books by occasionally giving pupils a brief synopsis of a story, telling some interesting incident from a good book or story, or by reading a short passage aloud?
5. Am I permitting pupils the opportunity to discuss intimately and informally books they are reading?
6. Do I constantly keep attractive, good books before the children?
7. Do I provide some free reading time for every child every day?
8. Do I indicate through my work with pupils that I myself like to read and am glad to share my reading with them?

In conclusion, attention should be called again to the type of activity of pupils which is quiet independent of guidance but which is intimate and personal in nature. It is excellent for every school to have one place where children can go to be away from the tensions and bustle of the school activities—a quiet place, not only to read but to sit and, perhaps, talk quietly concerning books and pictures. The library should plan to give such opportunity to all children and should never be so busy in filling the assignments of classrooms and the demands of individuals that it is impossible to maintain this very helpful atmosphere for a time of "quiet breathing."

CHAPTER VII

THE TEACHER'S RELATIONSHIP TO THE LIBRARY

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Within the past decade or two many changes have been brought about in schools by the more widespread application of a democratic philosophy, by the findings of modern psychology, and by the tested practices of experimental schools. Teachers are challenged to provide learning situations in which democratic procedures are implicit. Research has demonstrated that the effect on persons of living and working in a democratic situation is distinctly superior to the personal and social development which occurs in an authoritarian or a *laissez-faire* situation. The teacher recognizes her task to be one of helping to develop human personalities with the interests, skills, understanding, and ability to think their way clearly and critically through problems. She understands the part the library plays in developing a democratic citizenship.

The teacher's synthesis of the theories of modern psychology has led her to an understanding of the learning process. She views the child as a developing organism in which physical, mental, social, and emotional growth go on simultaneously. She sees the place the library holds in an educational program designed to produce personal and social integration. The concepts which an individual develops depend on his background of experience, both firsthand and vicarious. In the library the child has found interpretation for his firsthand experiences, and he has ventured into broader fields which he could explore only through books. The library has adapted materials to the child's level of maturity, thus providing for his continuous development.

Books have been influential in building attitudes which are the emotionalized outcomes of experience. Librarians as well as teachers have been conscious of the modifiability of specific attitudes. The librarian has consciously guided children to books in which they have experienced,

through admirable characters, the qualities of patience, endurance, self-sacrifice, generosity, kindness, sympathy, and tolerance. Each book to which the child has been guided has been influential in the establishment of specific attitudes. Each has made its contribution to determining his ultimate sense of values. Teachers are coming to recognize more fully that their purposes and those of the librarian are identical in the building of attitudes and that their techniques supplement and reinforce each other.

Psychological research has indicated the relationship between effective methods of work and personal integration. Here, again, the library reinforces the work of the teacher in helping children develop techniques of study. Because of her knowledge of materials, the librarian can provide for the gradual development of specific study skills. She will put the large picture-book of trains in the hands of the primary child, recognizing that his abilities will be sufficiently challenged in trying to solve his problem concerning the number of wheels on a locomotive. In the concern of the tenth-grade student with the problem of the historic development of rail transportation, she will see an opportunity to increase his ability to use the tools of scholarship which the library provides.

The library stands in vital relationship to every aspect of the learning process. It is by no means a mere adjunct to the classroom, but, like the classroom, it provides problems in the solution of which experience is reorganized and the organism is remade. The librarian should know the program of the school, but the teacher must recognize the full professional partnership which should exist if the library and classroom are to make their potential contribution to child development.

I. Planning Learning Experiences—A Joint Enterprise

In most schools where teachers are confronted with the problem of teaching thirty-five or forty children, it is necessary to do considerable careful planning in advance. Based on her knowledge of the previous experiences of the group, the teacher usually has in mind some broad area of experience which will probably prove interesting and challenging to them. She might list elements in the local environment to stimulate interest; to challenge curiosity; to make children wish to manipulate, to construct, and to express their ideas in words or other creative form. She may list the questions she thinks the children will ask. She may outline a possible sequence of experiences which may occur as the children traverse the area.

At every point in her planning she recognizes the need for the co-operation of the librarian. The librarian suggests titles which will help the teacher to build her own background of information. Fifteen or twenty well-illustrated books are selected and ready for use on the classroom reading-table as part of the arranged environment. Other books are listed and reserved to meet specific situations when new needs emerge and to provide attractive new materials from time to time. Sometimes a reserve shelf is assigned in the library where pertinent material is easily accessible or a list of books to be found in the library is supplied to the children, and they learn to use library facilities as they search for the answers to their questions.

The picture file yields a dozen simple, interesting pictures to be mounted on low bulletin boards for careful study by the children. A hasty examination of these resources yields promise of many appropriate pictures to use as the unit develops. Together the librarian and teacher examine a recent catalog of educational films and find two which will help build understanding quickly during the initial period of study. A well-classified file of fugitive materials yields pertinent clippings, a pamphlet, a simple story, and perhaps the rotogravure section of a metropolitan newspaper devoted to the specific subject.

From the collection of audio-visual aids the librarian and teacher select a pair of costumed dolls, several small pieces of pottery representative of the culture, a few commercial exhibits of products, a folio of designs, and a pictorial map. The teacher will add certain materials for construction, some clay ready for manipulation, large sheets of paper, and mixed cold-water paints.

The teacher encourages the librarian to visit the classroom where she may observe the pupils using books, note their preferences, watch the development of activities, and recognize the instructional materials needed to help solve problems, to correct misconceptions, or to broaden experience.

The teacher keeps the librarian informed concerning new interests as they develop, new subject matter which has been introduced in response to needs and interests. The teacher shares with the librarian her plans for meeting the individual differences in her group and enlists her co-operation in securing the material to meet the wide variation in interests and abilities represented. Together, teacher and librarian seek to meet the need of the poor reader, the child with little interest in books, the gifted child with mature interests.

The library becomes an extension of the classroom. Materials are discovered in various books, and clippings and graphic materials appear on the bulletin board; a table exhibit with accompanying books attracts instant attention. Thus, the library functions as a vital service center, a busy workshop, a place of opportunity where help is available when needed and where an atmosphere of order and quiet conducive to thoughtful reading prevails.

II. The Teacher Keeps Informed

Although the librarian may work diligently to keep teachers informed concerning books, periodicals, and audio-visual aids which are available in the library, the teacher has a reciprocal responsibility. A dynamic teacher is ever on the alert for new materials to stimulate the interest of pupils. Such a teacher makes it a practice to acquaint herself with the new materials the library has acquired and to examine the library exhibits.

The teacher may suggest that a poster or a mural made by the children of her classroom would serve as an appropriate backdrop for an exhibit on hobbies or pioneer days. She is not content with passive acceptance of the efforts of the librarian but discusses future exhibits which might stimulate interest in boats, in radio, in the life of the people of Mexico, or in any other area she may contemplate exploring with her children.

The study may culminate in a pageant or festival. The librarian cooperates in finding pictures which may be helpful in planning stage settings and costumes. Authentic folk songs and stories and descriptions of dances and ceremonials are found. Biographies are searched to determine the manner of speech of national characters. All these contributions can be made by the librarian when the teacher works with her and regards her as a co-operating member in a joint enterprise.

III. Teaching the Use of the Library

Schools are becoming increasingly aware of the need of a systematic program, from elementary school through college, for teaching the use of books and libraries. Although both teacher and librarian play an important part in such a program, the specific service of each should be clearly defined and not left to chance. No one way has been demonstrated as best. Research designed to enlighten librarians and teachers on most effective methods would be welcome and would tend to focus attention on an important and too frequently neglected problem.

In their text, *The Children's Book on How To Use Books and Libraries*,[1] Mott and Baisden have presented the results of five years of experimental work in teaching children. The acceptance of such a book gives evidence of recognition that such learning cannot be left to chance even on the elementary-school level. In most schools the librarian cannot give all the direct instruction needed, but she may serve as a technical consultant in setting up a sequence of specific skills which children will need for effective use of the card catalog, the parts of a book, charts and graphs, encyclopedias and dictionary, and special reference books. Closely related are the skills of taking notes and making bibliographies.

Under existing conditions most of the responsibility for such teaching must rest with the teacher. The librarian will furnish guidance as need arises, but good teaching will anticipate such needs to a considerable extent and reduce the number of demands made on the librarian. She may thus have her time free to give specific help where needed.

Frequent trips to the library by groups to learn how to use the card catalog, the periodical files, and the file of fugitive materials will result in more effective use of library facilities. Skill in use of encyclopedias, dictionaries, and books of special reference can be developed in the classroom with materials loaned by the library for classroom use or materials regularly housed in the classroom.

The aim of teacher and librarian is identical: to help children become independent in getting the most service from library facilities. No opportunity to develop this power should be overlooked by either librarian or teacher. On the whole, however, it seems hazardous to depend on incidental occasions for the acquisition of knowledge to meet pupils' needs. A carefully worked-out program with certain emphases at various levels of maturity will prove helpful.

IV. Partners in the Guidance of Free Reading

Modern schools emphasize the voluntary reading of children. Frequently the daily schedule provides for time in which children are free to enjoy the school library or to read library books in their own classroom. There are distinct advantages if children can have this experience in a well-arranged library under the direction of a professionally trained librarian. Not only are such conditions conducive to reading, but they

[1] Carolyn Mott and Leo B. Baisden, *The Children's Book on How To Use Books and Libraries*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937.

subtly build attitudes of appreciation for the value of libraries in schools and communities.

A lifetime of study could be devoted to children's literature. No teacher could possibly know all the books which would contribute to the development of the boys and girls in her classroom. Her day-by-day association with these children, however, reveals to her many differences in their abilities, needs, and interests. Through uniting her knowledge of children with the librarian's knowledge of books comes the wisest guidance of children's reading. "Bob is interested in aviation, but his reading ability is a year below his grade level." "Tony's background has been unfortunate. Can you suggest a he-man biography to him which will help him build some genuine values?" "Gail has little tolerance for the children in our class who are of lower economic status. Could you direct her reading to help her see that people who are less privileged may also lead worthy and interesting lives?" Observations such as these have far-reaching values. When teacher and librarian are both working toward common objectives in personality development, much can be accomplished to increase enjoyment, extend experience, develop tolerance, build standards, and promote wholesome attitudes through reading. The right book for the right child at the right time is the ideal toward which all children's librarians are constantly striving.

V. Expression Must Follow Impression

The teacher plays an important part in connecting the recreational reading in the library with the program in the classroom. It is fun to read. It is almost as much fun to share the distilled essence of one's reading with a friend or group of friends. The teacher can do much to heighten the children's enjoyment in reading by providing time for them to share their pleasure with their friends. Such sharing may take the more formal aspect of a book club, or it may be a joyous "gab fest" where favorite authors, illustrators, and books all come in for free and frank evaluation.

In speaking of art, Robert Louis Stevenson once said, "If you miss the joy, you miss all." Banish the memory of those dark days when the completion of a book meant the painful writing of a book review of prescribed length. It took a "super" book, to use the descriptive language of the modern child, to compensate for such a penalty.

Sharing may take the form of a brief oral presentation which stops short of divulging the denouement. It may consist in the reading of an exciting or beautiful incident. Some children enjoy keeping brief written

accounts of the books they have read. They may have the satisfaction of having such reports suggested for inclusion in the school paper.

The teacher should have her place as a participating member of the group. She may tell a story or read a poem to the group. Well done, such an event will be an aesthetic experience for children. The more capable the teacher, the greater will be the motivation of the children to conquer reading difficulties so they may have independent access to the treasures for which they must now rely upon the teacher. Nothing is so contagious as the teacher's own enthusiasm for literature.

VI. Co-operative Action on Curriculum Committees

The school librarian now serves with teachers on curriculum committees; she is ready to give professional assistance in determining the materials available for any proposed change in the educational program. Events of current interest may suggest the desirability of more emphasis on studies designed to build greater understanding and appreciation of the other American republics. Many problems arise in which the service of teachers and librarian is needed. At what grade level should such materials be introduced? Is sufficient material of an appropriate degree of difficulty available? Is the quality of the material such that the resulting experiences will contribute to the building of attitudes of sympathetic appreciation? Concerning what specific content can adequate material be obtained? Is such material now available in the school library? Can funds be allocated for purchase of additional books? These and a score of other questions must be answered in determining the feasibility of introducing new content. The availability of attractive, authentic material within the range of the reading ability of the children for whom it is intended is a most significant factor in the selection and grade placement of areas of experience. Such information discovered early in the process of curriculum planning saves much misdirected effort.

VII. Modern Techniques in Book Selection

It is the exception now to find a school system which employs a professional librarian where some system for co-operative evaluation and selection of books by committees of teachers and librarians has not been evolved. A recent book on library service expresses the need of co-operative action in these terms:

> Selecting books . . . . is a task which no one person can accomplish alone, since it affects the entire personnel of the school. Selecting books wisely should in-

variably involve the co-operation of principal, teachers, supervisors, public librarian, school librarian, and children. The librarian must utilize the knowledge of various members of the faculty in their special fields.[2]

Definite criteria which are acceptable from the point of view of both the librarian and teacher are used for the evaluation of books in every curricular field for which books are purchased, including recreational reading. Reading of new books by a number of carefully selected persons, independent evaluations, and final decision on the basis of objective evidence will assure a superior book collection.

A similar procedure applied by the Committee on the Revision of the *Graded Book List*, a committee which represents the National Education Association and the American Library Association, promises a more satisfactory evaluation of older recreational reading titles than could have been attained had teachers or librarians worked independently. In many school systems, because of insufficient trained personnel, it may be advisable to depend upon such an aid to book selection which represents the considered judgment of the two groups most vitally concerned and best qualified to express a choice.

VIII. Laboratories for Practical Democracy

The teacher and librarian can engage in another joint enterprise of tremendous importance. The library and the classroom should each constitute a miniature democracy in which children learn through experiencing the practices upon which democracy depends. Both teacher and librarian are engaged in helping children to learn consideration for the rights of others and responsibility for the care of public property. Guiding children to recognize that individual rights are safeguarded and that living is made more satisfactory for all when everyone accepts the personal responsibilities which must always accompany freedom is a problem shared by teacher and librarian. When both face the responsibility in a realistic manner and decide upon democratic procedures which both will utilize, the outcome of concerted action will be more favorable than when each proceeds on an independent course of action. Both teacher and librarian can help children to build understanding of democracy in the process of living. Democracy serves its people as individuals and as social groups to the end that the highest welfare of each individual is served commensurately with the welfare of the group.

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[2] Jewel Gardiner and Leo B. Baisden, *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School*, p. 65. Chicago: American Library Association, 1941.

IX. Conclusion

The teacher will relate her work most effectively to the library to the extent that she

1. Recognizes the part the library plays in building democratic citizenship.
2. Understands the contribution of the library in developing personal and social integration.
3. Values the service of the library in helping to build socially desirable specific attitudes and in contributing to the creation of a permanent sense of values.
4. Recognizes the place of library experience in building study skills.
5. Plans learning experience as a co-operative enterprise to which teacher and librarian can make mutually valuable professional contributions.
6. Provides opportunity for the librarian to observe materials in use by pupils as a basis for evaluating the usefulness of the materials co-operatively selected.
7. Keeps informed concerning the availability of new materials.
8. Co-operates with the librarian by suggesting interests which might be stimulated through library exhibits.
9. Accepts her full responsibility in providing learning experiences in how to use books and libraries.
10. Helps the librarian to know the interests, needs, and abilities of each child in order that the librarian may utilize the teacher's information in the guidance of voluntary reading.
11. Provides opportunity for children to give expression to interests growing out of their experience with books.
12. Gives evidence of her enthusiasm for books as sources of information and as sources of enjoyment and inspiration.
13. Utilizes the technical competence of the librarian as a co-worker on curriculum committees.
14. Shares with the librarian responsibility for the evaluation and selection of books.
15. Recognizes classroom and library as laboratories for learning the principles, ideals, and practices of democracy.

CHAPTER VIII

THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN

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The social and educational changes of modern life with their resultant influence on school objectives and teaching methods have brought about a new conception of the importance of the school library in the educational scheme and an increased demand for its services. These in turn have focused attention on the person who implements the functioning of this important agency—the school librarian.

Although a discussion of the training of the school librarian will not be undertaken in this chapter, it seems desirable to consider briefly the qualities and characteristics which make for success in the position. Since most school libraries are limited in staff to one person, it is desirable to find in that person the combined qualities of administrator, scholar, and educator. Adequate library training is needed to insure that materials and resources will be readily accessible and smoothly administered. Since library service extends to all departments of knowledge, a varied background of liberal education together with scholarly interests and understanding is fundamental. As an educator the librarian must be conversant with the scientific principles and the trends of modern education. Service both to children and adults requires a knowledge of the underlying principles of child, adolescent, and adult psychology. In addition, common sense, imagination, tact and understanding, initiative and enthusiasm, vitality, and a genuine interest in people are attributes which should be present in no small degree.

Given a librarian possessed of these qualities, the administration should see to it that the position is given the recognition by faculty and pupils which it deserves, that authority and money are available to procure and administer the facilities which are needed, and that the library does not exist as an isolated department but as a vital organization working in close relationship with the entire school to further the educational program.

I. Relationship to the School as a Whole

If the library is to fulfil its role in furthering the educational policies of the school, it must establish its objectives in line with those of the school; and as the educational pattern of the school changes it must adapt its policies and objectives to fit the changing needs. In order to make this adaptation the librarian should be placed in a position to know what is being done; in fact, she should be a member of any committee or group which is considering and formulating school policy. Her key position in the school and her ability to think in terms of the entire school make her over-all point of view important in questions of philosophy and policy, while her duty of inspiring loyalty to and co-operation with all school activities makes it imperative that she have the complete understanding of policies necessary for intelligent interpretation and support.

The curriculum in the modern school is constantly undergoing changes to keep the educational objectives in line with the demands of modern life. Such a program of curriculum development requires the co-operation of the entire staff, and to such co-operative effort the librarian can make a definite contribution. Advance notice of work to be undertaken enables her to supply the necessary tools for the use of the curriculum committee; she knows the library materials available for enriching courses of study and has access to aids listing other sources. Her acquaintance with both pupils and materials enables her to evaluate suggested items. Her presence on the committee insures that the demands made by the course of study for supplementary materials will be met. Furthermore, it acquaints her with the points of view underlying the adoption of all the units of work and will help her to interpret correctly the demands of the curriculum to the students. The co-operative effort gives the librarian one more opportunity to familiarize faculty members with the possibilities of the library in connection with the course. Thus the librarian's participation in curriculum development guarantees a mutual understanding by faculty and librarian of what is expected from the pupils, from the classroom work, and from the library.

The librarian's understanding is increased by subsequent visits to the classrooms to observe the activities of the various classes and to discuss with teachers and pupils methods for approaching new units of work, the possibilities existing in each project, and the respective merits of different books and material to be used. Class visits give opportunity to evaluate the adequacy of materials which have been used and to understand class-

room problems and teaching method. They are so valuable that provision should be made for them regardless of other pressing duties.

The position of librarian in a school carries with it an important liaison function which should be recognized. The librarian is able to exert a good deal of influence in interpreting the needs of teachers and pupils to the administration and of pupils to the faculty; she can suggest ways of unifying the work of the different departments by notifying teachers of her observations on units that fit together; she may suggest the integration of activities of different classes and even of extra-curricular groups through supplementary materials and by pointing out similar interests and objectives.

II. Relationship to the Teachers

The efficient functioning of the school library depends upon a co-ordination of effort between the teachers and the librarian so that the entire school staff operates as a single unit. To arrive at complete efficiency there must be "complete understanding and co-operation between the reading aspects of instruction and the classroom aspects."

One of the chief library services to the faculty is the provision of materials for their teaching—making the library an "agency for curriculum enrichment." It has already been pointed out that familiarity with the course of study and frequent class visits provide means of knowing and understanding the requirements for material. Fulfilling such requirements is a threefold task: acquainting the faculty members with available library materials which will serve their needs; watching for, notifying teachers about, and acquiring new materials as needed; and borrowing from other sources materials which are not owned and cannot be purchased. Different instructors will want to use the materials provided in different ways. Some prefer a bibliography which can be duplicated and given to their pupils; others request that they be allowed to borrow all the material for use in the classroom; still others wish to have reserve shelves in the library for the use of their pupils. Frequently an invitation to the class to work in the library is most satisfactory because such an arrangement gives access to all the resources of the library and puts them into use under the combined guidance of teacher and librarian.

A second service to the teacher can be given through reporting student needs. The requests that come to the librarian reflect classroom teaching, and the librarian soon learns about assignments for which library materials are inadequate. Reporting such inadequacies to the subject special-

ists usually results in changing the assignments or in supplying necessary library materials before the unit of work is repeated.

Since acquisition of materials presupposes need for them and a desire to have them used, notification to faculty members about such acquisitions (and about new publications) is a third important service. Attention can be called to new publications by formal notices, by supplying book reviews or announcements, or by borrowing the books for inspection by teachers.

The invitation to hold a faculty or departmental meeting in the library provides an opportunity to display late acquisitions. The device of arranging the display by departments for a faculty meeting directs attention where it is most valuable. The librarian should welcome opportunities to talk on such occasions, especially at departmental meetings where the group is smaller and interests more uniform and where attention may be devoted to reference tools and reading matter which directly concern the department.

Among other effective devices are book lists, bulletins about new books and important magazine articles, personal notices to individuals, and the sending of books direct to the classroom for examination by the teacher. Invitations to meet classes in the library also permit introduction to new materials. Any service to faculty members which calls attention to the value of the library collection and its teaching possibilities or to the ability of the librarian to co-operate is of the utmost importance. Only a few such services can be discussed.

In teacher-training institutions today increasing attention is being given to acquainting students with the use of libraries and library materials. The librarian must be aware of this trend and must continue the work by encouraging new teachers to use the library and by inspiring teachers in service to adopt newer methods. An alert librarian can give inestimable help to new staff members by inviting them to the library to see the resources for enriching their class teaching and by suggesting possible methods for using the materials. Regulations for use of the library and possibilities for co-operation should be explained.

A desk for teachers in the main library room or in a library conference room is appreciated by faculty members who like to help pupils during a free period or who want to find a place in the crowded room where they feel free to work with library materials. Professional books and magazines should be provided, as well as a place in which they may be used—either a corner of the library or a bookshelf in the teachers' recreation

room. Placing these books in a staff room and allowing teachers to check them out from there frequently promotes circulation and reading. It removes, however, one means of inducing teachers to visit the library.

The knowledge gained by the librarian through her visits to the classroom and through her close work with the teachers is valuable in helping her to tie up many library exhibits with the classroom or departmental work. She makes discoveries as she goes about the building, suggests references to assist in completing projects under way, and asks permission to use certain items in connection with a library display. Such exhibits acquaint library users with the type of work done in different departments or classes, and they often assist pupils in the selection of courses. They suggest methods and projects to other teachers and publicize to pupils, fellow faculty members, the administration, and civic groups, the work inspired by teachers.

Practically every well-planned school event, whether sponsored by administration, faculty, or pupils, owes directly or indirectly some measure of success to the active school librarian. An English field day, a career or college night, a program for parents given by the science department or the modern language department—all have used in some way the services of the library staff. It may have been an advance exhibit for publicity, a poster display of colleges, a bibliography for use of pupils in preparation for the event, a conference with faculty and student committees on speakers, forms of programs, introductions—all are services rendered almost involuntarily to help in furthering the work of the faculty.

III. Relationship to Pupils

Important as are the services of the librarian to teachers, the services to pupils are even more challenging. Some of the major contributions are as follows: providing a democratic situation in which to work; assisting in individual and group guidance; providing opportunities for student participation in library activities; directing student projects not connected directly with the library; and aiding in teaching pupils to use the library and its collection.

The school library offers the finest opportunity for training in democracy and socialized organization. Here pupils of all ages, classes, and interests meet in an atmosphere of friendliness and freedom where assistance on any problem may be sought or where an inviting book or magazine provides an hour or more of relaxation. Admittance should be simple and easy, restricted only by an observance of the rights of others and

a willingness to assume individual responsibility for order and co-operation. Here the pupil is offered direction, guidance, and friendliness, and in return is asked only to share the services and the materials with others who have an equal right to use them.

The contribution of the librarian to the guidance of pupils is manifold in its possibilities. It consists of guidance along educational and vocational lines, reading guidance, study direction, and that great field of personal, individual counseling thought of as comradeship and friendship rather than as formal guidance. All of them are important in the relationship of the librarian to the pupils.

After providing a natural, democratic environment for pupils, the librarian must make sure that there is free access to the library. Nothing can be more deadly to the successful functioning of a school library than a system of red tape which discourages pupils from library use. The library habit cannot be stimulated under such conditions and therefore the librarian's first service to pupils is to remove restrictions which limit the legitimate use of the library facilities.

Service to pupils in connection with their curricular work consists of reference help on class assignments or personal problems, advice on topics for themes or term projects or special research, or instruction in the use of necessary books or library tools.

By providing books, pamphlets, and college catalogs and by arranging displays on vocations, careers, and colleges the librarian offers pupils information and advice relative to their future course.

As a specialist on books and reading, the librarian shares with the teachers the work of reading guidance. The librarian has the advantage, perhaps, for she meets the pupils always in the presence of books. By a study of office records giving results of reading and achievement tests, intelligence ratings, reading records, and other information concerning each pupil and by cultivating personal acquaintance with each child to discover interests and abilities, the librarian builds up a background of information which enables her to give real stimulation to the child in his reading. Her interest should extend to those pupils who are not making use of library services, and care should be taken to locate such pupils for the purpose of discovering reasons for their failure to take advantage of the library facilities. To give successful reading guidance, the librarian should always present an attitude of readiness to listen to a comment, to share an enthusiasm, or to respond to a request for a suggestion about a good book.

The librarian's aid in teaching the use of the library goes on continuously. While basic lessons in library use may be taught to groups by the librarian in the library, the accepted plan is to integrate all but the basic lessons with other studies. It is usually impossible for the librarian to give this instruction, but she should be prepared to initiate it, if necessary, and to assist the teachers in planning and preparing the lessons.

Instruction to individuals is given constantly by the librarian throughout the school life of each pupil. Personal direction on a reference problem, interpretation of an item in a library tool, help in locating a book, solving a difficulty in the use of the catalog, checking an error in entry on a bibliography, pointing out an inefficient method of note-taking—these are so much a part of the reference work of a librarian that they sometimes receive less credit than they deserve.

The socialized organization provides opportunity for pupil participation in many library activities. A system of student government in a library provides an experience in democratic living. The assistance of the council in drafting and enforcing library regulations and in solving the problems of lost books and mutilations as well as in student discipline gives support to the librarian and creates in pupils an active interest in the affairs of their library. The codes of etiquette for school libraries drawn up by student committees in several schools are evidence of the sound thinking of which students are capable.

Library representatives in homerooms to take care of library notices, homeroom requests, and other contacts between the library and the homeroom are mutually advantageous. Library representatives in classes are able to serve the teachers and pupils of the classes by reporting the beginning of new units of work and the requests of the class for material, thereby keeping the librarian in close touch with the progress of the course and assuring the teacher and pupils that material will be assembled as needed.

Classes, clubs, student organizations, and individuals should be encouraged to recommend books or other materials for purchase. Such requests should receive careful consideration and a reply, either by a notice that the material has been received or by a conference to explain the reason for not making the purchase.

The librarian should, either personally or through her student assistants or homeroom representatives, give active assistance to the orientation program. The introduction of a new group to the library and the ef-

fort to reach every new pupil are services very helpful to the pupils and, indirectly, to the library.

Finally, the use of student assistants in the library provides a special opportunity for service. Whether the help is given through membership in a library-service club or through enrolment in a library-science course for credit, the student assistant realizes certain benefits: training in accuracy and in clerical duties, the development of poise and responsibility in working with people, an awareness and appreciation of books, an exploratory experience for determining aptitude for library work as a profession, and the satisfaction of service to the school.

There remains the consideration of the service which may be rendered to projects not connected directly with library work, services given without or within the library, all involving personal relationships with pupils. The fairly long hours and full schedule preclude much outside work for the average librarian. Nevertheless, mention must be made of the possibilities. A field trip with a group of students to an important book fair or to a publishing house might in addition to its educational importance stimulate interest in the library and in reading. The direction of library assemblies, the arrangement of book-week programs, the sponsorship of clubs, and similar activities are extremely important. The school is indeed fortunate which has an administration which realizes the value of this work and provides the library staff to make it possible.

IV. The Librarian in Relation to Agencies Other Than the School

Just as the librarian supplies a unifying link between units of organization in the school, just so she acts as the chief liaison officer between the school library and the public, state, and regional libraries which serve the community. The relationship to state and regional libraries involves a knowledge of their resources and the possibilities of making these resources available to the school should the need arise.

The co-operation with the public library or other local library agencies can be reciprocal. Under some forms of school-library control much of the technical work and some of the services of the school and public libraries are co-ordinated. Under separate organization there can still be much mutual assistance in planning and buying. Where funds are limited it is very important that there be the closest co-operation in the selection of books and periodicals and other audio-visual materials. Such co-operative buying and avoidance of duplication of expensive items imply a

thorough knowledge of the respective collections in order that the fullest possible service to patrons may be insured.

It will be of advantage to each to advertise the special collections, the new acquisitions, and the events sponsored by the other.

The school librarian should always keep the public library informed about possible demands which will be made by pupils and should help plan ways of meeting such demands. She may assist in creating reserve shelves in the public library for books needed by many pupils; she should supply copies of assignments and lists of references, or, if the public library prefers, she may borrow the books for use in the school library. At all times she should endeavor to carry as much as possible of the school load in order that the facilities of the public library shall not be overcrowded.

The introduction of pupils to the public library helps to create future patrons for public and college libraries. This may be done by taking classes to visit the public library or by writing personal notes or cards recommending an individual for membership. Public and school librarians should share the responsibility of following up the library contacts of high-school graduates and of pupils who leave school before graduation.

Efficient and progressive library administration is stimulated by participation in professional activities with other members of the profession. The librarian who maintains active membership in community, state, and national library associations is cognizant of new developments and practices which may be adaptable to her work. Assistance on professional committees, teaching of summer or extension library courses, study in formal courses or with forum groups, visits to libraries of various sizes and types—these are some of the helpful devices for keeping informed and enthusiastic.

It is the duty of the librarian to follow the progress of important research in library and educational fields and to examine the reports of investigations for implications for her work.

In the light of such new developments the librarian should frequently evaluate the collections and services of her own library. Evaluative criteria such as those devised by the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards may be used, or the evaluation may be simply a continuous critical self-survey consisting of an honest and searching analysis.

Community activities which have some claim on the interests and time of the school librarian are worth while in the information they give about the homes from which the pupils come and in the support which

they engender for the library. The librarian should be conversant with community needs, and wherever possible should offer the resources of the library to help meet such needs. This may mean reference service to townspeople; it may mean arranging summer library hours for children and young people; or it may simply mean posting public notices or giving publicity to civic movements. Co-operation or leadership in book drives, charity work, scholarship benefits, and similar community efforts is appreciated by community leaders. As a student of books, the librarian should be willing to assist study clubs in planning programs, in assembling materials, and in giving book talks or reviews.

As a person interested in children and young people and as a reading adviser, she should be prepared at all times to present the problems of youth to interested organizations and to work with these groups on young people's reading. Conferences with parents on the reading of their children and the preparation of lists of books recommended for purchase for personal libraries are valuable in raising the quality of reading. When such lists are presented to local booksellers and their co-operation is enlisted there is still a better hope for successful results.

The school is a vital, functioning agency of the educational system which owes its existence to community support. Any contact that the librarian can make in the way of service which does not interfere with the services to the school is of value not only because of the work itself but because of the realization and understanding it gives of the contributions a good school library can make.

V. Relationship to the Administration

The administrative officers of a school have the dual responsibility of securing the greatest possible educational returns from the school library and of securing support to make those returns possible. To assist them in interpreting and supporting the library program, the librarian should keep them fully informed concerning all the activities of the staff and the use of the resources of the library.

Reports should be presented monthly and should be supplemented by an annual report to summarize the work of the year and to present plans for the following year. Personal conferences to clarify and interpret written statements should be requested as often as they seem advisable. Written reports which take the form of running comment with specific illustrations are effective, but they should be accompanied by statistics. Records of circulation, attendance, size of collection, reference questions

answered, and similar details are most useful in showing volume of work and need for continued support. These records demonstrate the importance of the library in the educational scheme and should indicate as far as possible not only the amount of service rendered but its quality. Instances of effective co-operation between the librarian and the teachers, projects in which the library has taken part, work with other libraries or community agencies, service on school or professional committees, library lessons taught, book talks given, class visits, exhibits—these are all important in reporting the value of the library to the administration and through them to the supporting groups.

The reports should include information about possibilities of service as yet unrealized, with an explanation of what is necessary to make such services available. Attention should be directed to standards which have been met or to those which the library has failed to meet. It is valuable to furnish comparisons to other school libraries as often as information on comparable situations can be found. Every activity of any value and every library service which has been given may be reported. It is necessary for the administrative officers to foster enlightened opinion in the community concerning the entire educational program. The information concerning the library should be planned and reported regularly and should be such that it will secure public interest and support.

VI. Conclusion

The principles which have been set forth in the preceding pages are not new but they bear repetition and emphasis. The trained librarian has long recognized the importance of the library in making the educational program effective. It has been part of her philosophy of librarianship. Her relations to the school as a whole, to the faculty, to the pupils, and to other agencies permeate and bind together the entire range of functions which the library performs. For the "modern library . . . . is not interpreted in terms of books alone, nor of systems alone, but through the personality and sensitivity of its librarian."

CHAPTER IX

RELATIONS OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS TO THE LIBRARY

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I. Introduction

Chapters vi, vii, and viii have presented a suggestive pattern of school-library service in terms of pupils, teachers, and librarians. But the interrelationship of these three "factors," in so far as effective use of the school library is concerned, depends largely upon the school administrator. His attitude will condition the attitudes of pupils, teachers, and librarians; furthermore, unless he has a clear understanding of the role of the library, its services cannot be effectively developed or utilized.

Within the last thirty or forty years, with the growth and development of school libraries throughout the country and with the use of trained librarians, there has been a tendency for some principals and superintendents to spend very little time on the real work of the library because of their preoccupation with other matters. Most administrators have aided the development of libraries, especially on the secondary level, by fostering teacher-librarian co-operation, but in many schools the responsibility for the library has hardly had its share of the time of the superintendent and the principal. Today there is evidence of a renewed effort on the part of the superintendent and the principal to resume their proper role in the development of the school library.

School libraries are organized in several different ways: under the control of local school authorities, in which case the responsibility of administration is directly in the hands of the superintendent and the principal; under the supervision of a city employee who acts as library supervisor under the direction of the board of education; or under the joint auspices of the board of education and the public library, in which case the principal and the superintendent usually have official representation on the co-oper-

ative board of control. The present trend is decidedly toward board-of-education control with the principal and the superintendent of schools in direct line of responsibility.[1]

Within the school system the division of responsibility for the school library between the principal and the superintendent depends to a large extent on the size and organization of the system. In the large city school system it is the responsibility of the superintendent to establish the place and service of the library and its relation to the public library, but he is, in practice, far removed from its actual administration. Correspondingly, in these large systems where the school becomes a comparatively autonomous unit, the principal's relationship to the library becomes more important, and he assumes responsibility for many of those functions of the library which are the superintendent's responsibility in the smaller community. In the village school, on the other hand, where the principal is really the principal-teacher, and the superintendent is the active professional head of the organization, it is the superintendent who is in direct control of library policy. Moreover, in a small system where there is no trained librarian, the superintendent has the further responsibility of assuming the professional leadership ordinarily supplied by the librarian in developing library facilities and services. Throughout this chapter, therefore, it must be kept in mind that there is no *typical* school library and that the relationship of the superintendent to the library, and of the principal to the library, cannot be marked off, one from the other, by a definite and distinct line. The working relations here suggested must be interpreted in terms of the size of the community, the administrative organization of the school system, and various other local conditions. Throughout this chapter, whenever the words "principal" and "superintendent" are used, they should be thought of as jointly representing the administrator responsible for the professional sponsorship of the school library.

II. The Superintendent and the School Library

There are certain responsibilities in connection with the school library which, regardless of the size or type of organization of the school system, belong clearly to the superintendent. He must, first of all, see that the library service of his school system adheres to approved standards with respect to such factors as space, books, equipment, personnel, and budget.

[1] H. L. Cecil and W. A. Heaps, *School Library Service in the United States*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1940.

In their efforts to appraise high schools, accrediting agencies have made many statistical studies of libraries in the schools and recently have set up evaluative criteria for the detailed study of libraries. The trend in the studies carried on by various organizations, including the Department of Secondary Education, the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges, the American Library Association, and the United States Office of Education, has been toward qualitative as well as quantitative standards. The effort has been to measure library service in terms of educational philosophy, school library objectives, type of curriculum, background of students, and needs of the school community.[2] The superintendent needs to be familiar with such studies in order to check the library service of his school system against their carefully worked-out standards.

It is also the superintendent's place to present to the board of education the pertinent facts with reference to library service and needs. This information may be readily obtained by him from reports sent in by principals at regular intervals and should serve as the basis for administrative action. Not only should the superintendent require of his principals periodic reports about the extent to which their school libraries are being used and the types of services they are rendering, but he should, in meetings with them, provide opportunities for discussion of problems and policies involved in the improvement of school-library services.

The superintendent is in a position, too, to exert great influence in the encouragement of widespread community interest in, and support of, the work of the school library. There are many ways, especially in small cities and towns, in which the school library can be of service to the community. The library may be made available in the late afternoon and evening for meetings of civic groups, and its research and reference facilities may be offered to city and town officials. The librarian herself may assist in various civic projects. In larger school systems where there is a planned public-relations program the superintendent should see that the library is given adequate treatment and interpretation.

Closely associated with the matter of community relations is the question of the relationship of the school library to the public library. In most

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[2] See L. F. Fargo, *The Library in the School.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1939; and *Certain Aspects of School Library Administration,* Research Division of the National Education Association, Circular No. 6, 1939. Washington: National Education Association, 1939.

cities it is preferable to have the two systems of libraries operate independently. It is difficult for the school to achieve fully integrated service with the public library; furthermore, there are many disadvantages from the administrative point of view. Use of the public library usually involves taking the children outside of school premises, and, even when the books are housed within the school, use by the children conflicts with the library's service to the adults of the community. In small towns, however, closer collaboration may be desirable. It is better to have one well-balanced collection of books, for school and community together, than for each to maintain an incomplete library of its own. Small communities should also enlist the co-operation of state library agencies.

Even in cities where the schools have large and well-equipped libraries of their own, a certain degree of co-operation with the public library is essential, and here again it is the responsibility of the superintendent to determine policy. He should make every possible use of the public library as a means of extending the educative influence of the school beyond the limits of the school day and the school year. The school should direct pupils to the public library after school and in the summer, and the library should, in turn, guide them to those books which stimulate and supplement the work they are doing at school. In general, the school should look to the public library to furnish most books of a recreatory nature. For a balanced discussion of the relation between the school and public library and a list of services which the public library can render to the schools see Cecil and Heaps, *School Library Service in the United States.*[3]

One of the superintendent's most important responsibilities, of course, is the formulation of policies with reference to the school library. In this connection he should recognize that a school library can operate effectively only when it is recognized as an integral part of the service of the school, not as a mere appendage. Moreover, he needs to have clearly in mind the objectives of the school library. He should see that the libraries in his system are making their maximum contribution to general education; that their work is directed toward the goal of making pupils competent readers. The superintendent might well familiarize himself with some of the criteria of library service which have been drawn up by experts in the field. For example, Lucile F. Fargo in *The Library in the School* lists the objectives of the school library as follows:

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[3] *Op. cit.*, pp. 221–29.

1. To acquire suitable library materials and organize them for the use of pupils and teachers
2. To make the library an agency for curriculum enrichment, pupil exploration, and the dissemination of good literature
3. To teach the skilful use of books and libraries in the interest of research and of self-education
4. To create an atmosphere favorable to the growth of the reading habit
5. To stimulate literary appreciation
6. To demonstrate the desirability of books and libraries as the companions of leisure
7. To provide fruitful social experience[4]

Closely associated with the question of library policies is the responsibility for defining the relations of the school library to the curriculum and the instructional program. The school library mirrors the philosophy of the instructional program. The library is not just a room for housing books; it is an instructional agency for highly specialized educational service. The librarian should suggest books for the students to read, encourage investigations on their part, foster book clubs, and plan exhibits for classroom and general school use. When the library is an integral part of the instructional organization, the librarian serves as the go-between for the right book and the right child and does much to stimulate and maintain children's interest in reading. Moreover, there are many situations in which the librarian functions as a teacher. Through the organization of the library as a social institution she can do much to make boys and girls conscious of the rights citizenship bestows and of the obligations it demands in return. The library provides an opportunity for children to assume some responsibility and initiative in maintaining good working conditions and to share their experiences with each other in a friendly spirit of mutual helpfulness. The proper care of library furniture and equipment, prompt return of library materials borrowed, etc., constitute fine training for citizenship. Then, too, the current emphasis on thrift demands economy not only in tangible things but also in study; that is, knowledge of how to use the tools of learning so as to get the greatest return for the least expenditure of time and energy. By taking advantage of such opportunities for instruction the librarian becomes a teacher in the highest sense of the word.

It is usually the principal who works directly with the librarian, but

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[4] *Op. cit.*, p. 23.

since it is the superintendent's responsibility to select the library personnel, it is important that he, too, be aware of the librarian's function as a teacher. The good librarian is much more than a keeper of books, and the superintendent needs to recognize that checking out books and keeping order in the library does not constitute "library service." In choosing a librarian the superintendent might well ask himself the questions suggested by the Research Division of the National Education Association in their bulletin on library administration: Has she had adequate training? Is she certificated? Does she rank as a teacher in position and salary?[5] It is highly important that the librarian be alert to an ever changing and growing curriculum and to her own responsibility in its development. In village and rural schools it may not always be possible to secure the services of a trained librarian, but everywhere the person placed in charge of the school library should be equipped with administrative ability, good judgment, patience, enthusiasm, and good humor. She must not only know books and library routine; she must know boys and girls, their likes and dislikes. For this reason it is wise for the superintendent, in selecting a librarian, to interview the candidates personally in addition to considering their records. Moreover, once he has secured a capable librarian, it is the superintendent's responsibility to provide her with enough assistance to free her from routine and provide opportunity for her important professional services.

The superintendent cannot afford to overlook the needs of the school library in the allotment of funds. Sometimes when it is necessary to curtail expenditures it may seem a simple expedient to take the first slice off the library allotment, but the wise superintendent will keep in mind reliable, up-to-date statistics on library costs (the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges recommends seventy-five cents per pupil as the minimum annual budget for high-school libraries and fifty cents per pupil on the elementary-school level), and he will consult the librarian to ascertain specific local needs. As a guide in determining the allotment of funds to the school library he may consider the following factors listed in *School Library Service in the United States:* pupil population; average daily attendance; type of curriculum and organization; character of student body; character of teaching staff, as reflected in extent of library use; and relationship with the public library.[6]

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[5] *Op. cit.*, p. 12.

[6] *Op. cit.*, p. 207.

The superintendent should also consult the librarian in working out the architectural plans for the library of a new or remodeled building.[7]

The development and maintenance of an effective program of library service in any school system is largely dependent upon a recognition by the superintendent of its importance as an instrument of education and his interpretation of its value to the school board, to the end that adequate provision is made for its administrative control, supervision, and support.

III. The Principal and the School Library

Just as the broad program of the school library is limited or extended by the superintendent's conception and support of its services, so its specific functions within the school are largely determined by the principal's plan for its use. It is his attitude toward the library and his interpretation of it to the pupils, teachers, and librarians which establishes its place and function in the school. The superintendent lays down general principles for its development and plans the over-all budget, but, especially in large city schools, it is the principal whose contact with, and control of, the library is more direct.

The principal needs first of all to see and use the library as a service organization. If he plans a safety campaign, an auditorium session on Latin-American backgrounds, a school radio broadcast on thrift in wartime, or a hobby-week display, he should use the library as the logical source of helpful, organized material.

But it is even more important that the principal see the role the library can play in the development of the instructional program of the school. Modern educational methods presuppose the school library as a superlaboratory, and the principal is responsible for directing the trends in library function so that they are in line with the development of the instructional program. Naturally, as curriculum-planning has progressed during the last two decades, corresponding changes have followed in the function and organization of the school. The Gary plan, involving alternation between classroom work and playground, shop, and library, gave the principal the responsibility of meeting the demands for new and varied services from the library. The platoon system called for a flexible library setup which could accommodate a single or double platoon. The Dalton and Winnetka plans, emphasizing individualized instruction,

[7] For an extensive treatment of building problems see Fargo, *op. cit.*, pp. 265–85.

forced the principal and superintendent to recognize the need for more books for individual reading. The unit method of instruction demands related sets of materials in the library and requires a broader background on the part of the librarian.

The shift in many school systems from the forty-five-minute recitation period to the hour period, however, brings some difficulties in the administration of the library and requires some change in library functions and policy. One librarian has said that the hour period "wrecks the library." It is true that in schools operating on the basis of the forty-five-minute recitation period there are more opportunities for pupils to read and study in the library during the school day. Many schools with this organization have scheduled free periods when the librarian can guide the study of pupils who bring their assignments from the classroom to the library. In addition, this plan allows time for students to spend free periods in the library on individual study projects.

Under the hour-period plan, on the other hand, the pupils remain in classrooms almost all day and have few free periods in which to work in the library. Instead, there is need in the classroom itself for background material, study aids, illustrative literature of all kinds, and opportunity for realistic application of the principles learned to the everyday affairs of the pupils. It therefore becomes necessary under the longer-period plan of organization for the central library to service the classroom groups more fully. The librarian should provide materials and information needed in the classrooms. In this connection the librarian must serve as a coordinator, so that where only one set of materials is available, no two teachers will plan to work on the same unit simultaneously. She can even go to the classroom occasionally herself to work with the students and teachers in the development of units during the work-study periods. The maximum use should be made of the library in this way, the teacher and students working with the librarian as part of the regular class procedure. Where facilities permit, classes in all subjects, not merely in the field of language arts, should be scheduled for an average of at least one period a week in the library. The size of the library should be such as to accommodate one complete class group working together, in addition to other pupils working individually.

Naturally, the principal plays an important role in establishing such a working relationship between the classroom teachers and the librarian. It is his responsibility to see that the administrative setup is provided in which librarian and teachers can make wise and efficient use of the library

facilities in the light of the specific type of organization the school employs; and his continuous co-operation is essential.

It is, therefore, of fundamental importance that the principal understand the role of the librarian in the development of the instructional program. He should recognize her officially as having senior-teacher status or as head of a department where such a plan is used, and he should see that she is named to serve on instructional and curriculum committees. He should require the librarian to attend all general faculty meetings and have her submit reports regularly, including statistical material and suggestions for extension of service. There should be frequent conferences between librarian and principal. It is especially important that he include her in school-planning so that she will guide the library's functions not by external professional standards only but in terms of what her particular school is doing and planning at a given time. There no longer should be a line of demarcation between librarian and teacher whereby one gives out books and the other uses them. The librarian should work hand-in-hand with the teachers in their planning. For example, if a new course on the Western Hemisphere is being introduced, the librarian and teachers together should plan its content, the librarian bringing to the aid of the teachers all the resources of the library. Especially in times of national crisis can the library contribute to the instructional program. Class reactions register rapidly in the library, and as new needs make themselves known they must be met promptly. With the impact of the war emergency, librarians are faced with increasing demands for materials on foreign affairs, vocational training, and various aspects of morale. These materials together with maps and atlases, when sent from library to classroom, provide teacher and students with helps for intelligent interpretation of the world today and particularly of the place of the United States in world affairs.

Moreover, through the librarian the principal can do much to analyze and supervise the instructional program in his school. From her objective vantage point the librarian observes the reading habits of students studying in the library or in the classroom and learns much about the way they are taught. She notes assignments and the range and quality of references given to the pupils by the teachers. She notices enthusiasms for, or lack of interest in, assignments and can determine whether these reactions are to the course of study or to the teacher's approach. For example, if a teacher sends a student to the library with a bibliography listing only the most obvious references for a unit in world history, with no

emphasis upon current happenings, or listing books with an apparent bias or obsolete periodical footnotes, she brands herself as a backward-looking instructor. The librarian can do much to help the principal appraise the instruction by making much essential information available to him, which he, in turn, can pass on to the superintendent for his use in improving the city-wide level of instruction. The librarian cannot do this, of course, without the active support and co-operation of the principal. It is for him to take the initiative in working out any such system of appraisal.

The principal may profitably spend some time in the library himself, noticing the reactions of students and their ability or inability to handle library materials. He can in this way discover needs that must be met in the instructional program and may find much evidence to help him better understand the specific instructional problems of individual teachers. Using the library thus as an appraisal center, the principal, and through him, the superintendent, can watch the growth of the students, of the teachers, of the courses of study, and of the administration of the instructional program.

Working so closely with the school library and librarian, the principal can effectively determine sound library policies. It is one of his primary responsibilities to see that the school library serves all classes on all grade levels and that it provides ample and appropriate material for children of limited and exceptional, as well as of normal, ability. He needs to make clear the distinction between the type of reading done in the classroom and in the library, emphasizing the values of those library methods by which pupils are introduced to materials that appeal to their individual tastes, accompanied by none of the analytical treatment that works of literature so frequently receive in high-school English classes. The librarian individualizes the instructional materials and secures a maximum adaptation to individual needs.

From the vantage point of his over-all view of the program the principal can well go on from here to fit reading guidance into the larger guidance program of the school. Not only can the library provide books and magazines in various occupational fields to supplement the practical work in classrooms and shops, but it can "guide" in a broader sense of the word. High-school pupils need books that inform and instruct and books that awaken and inspire. Through carefully selected books and other reading materials and by individual guidance, the school library can help pupils get the facts; can help them develop tolerance and understanding;

and can strengthen and preserve their faith in the American way of life.

In addition to its services to the pupils the library may be utilized by the principal to encourage and stimulate the professional growth of his teachers. He may, for example, have the librarian report briefly on new professional literature at faculty meetings or on the bulletin board, and he may have her reserve a shelf in the library for its display.

In school systems furnishing free textbooks, the textbooks are often housed and distributed separately and their circulation made wholly a routine procedure. In such schools a satisfactory division has usually been made between the functions of the library and the "bookroom." The library is a place for reading for information and recreation; the "bookroom," for storing, distributing, and repairing textbooks. It is the principal's responsibility to see that there is no confusion between the two types of service and that the time of the librarian is not absorbed by the administrative routine of the "bookroom."

IV. Conclusion

Although the library may seem rather far removed from the daily routine of the busy school superintendent and the principal, it is a vital and integral part of the school system and must not be overlooked in the rush and pressure of administrative duties. The attitudes of students, teachers, and librarians are affected by that of the administrator, and there are many functions in connection with the library's effective operation which only the principal and the superintendent can perform. The superintendent and the principal are responsible not only for determining the broad policies of the library but also for seeing that its service is fully integrated with the curriculum and instructional program; that it is adequately staffed and supported by funds; and that its work is properly interpreted to the board of education and to the community. Without recognition on the part of the superintendent and the principal of the service the school library renders, and without their full co-operation and support, the library cannot reach the maximum of its possibilities for service to the school system.

SECTION IV

THE NATURE AND SELECTION OF MATERIALS

CHAPTER X

BOOK SELECTION FOR THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

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It is a far cry from the heterogeneous collection of books brought together more or less by chance, housed casually in some room or alcove left over after all the classrooms in the building had been assigned, and then called a library, to the present-day school library, organized, equipped, administered, and recognized as an essential part of the school. Fundamental changes in educational philosophy and methods—the swing away from departmentalized subject matter, the child-centered school, the emphasis laid on experience in dealing with the problems of today as a preparation for life—have all contributed to the development of the school library.

By its very nature the library was an agency ready to respond to the new education. The introduction of the use of many books needed by a group instead of one textbook, coupled with the possibility, even probability, that each member of a class would need a different book for his assignment, brought about a situation that the school library at its best was equipped to provide for.

The school library furnishes the "real life-situation" which progressive education has sought. It does this not only when it provides an opportunity for the pupil to consult many sources of information, checking one authority against another, but also when it permits the individual to find, with guidance and advice when he needs them, books for recreational reading, choosing freely from a book collection selected for merit and variety.

The function of a school library is therefore twofold, and both aspects are equally important. The library aims (1) to provide a well-balanced collection of books for the use of pupils and teachers in classroom and laboratory work, and (2) to build up a collection of books for general

reading that will appeal to boys and girls of different ages and tastes and help them to develop the reading habit and an appreciation of good literature.

In order to serve its purposes, the school library must contain an ample supply of books. According to standards set for modern school-library practice, the library should spend on books at least $1.00 per pupil; $1.25 is better; $2.00, an ideal which, though rarely reached, obviously permits a more adequate collection. A small school will necessarily spend more per pupil than a large one. The collection should contain a wide variety of books to appeal to different tastes and ages and to suit wide differences in reading ability, to supply accurate information in connection with pupils' courses, and to develop in boys and girls a genuine love of books and reading. Reading interests range all the way from that of the mechanically minded boy who reads with comprehension and enjoyment a book on the Diesel engine to that of the pupil who is fascinated by Gilbert Murray's translations of Euripides. There is always more than a slight chance that, once the reading habit is formed, the young reader's tastes will broaden until his choice of books covers many other interests besides the primary one.

I. The Kinds of Books in a School Library

The books which make up a school library fall roughly into three groups: (1) books for ready reference; (2) books in the different fields of knowledge—science, history, the arts, languages, biography, travel, and literature; and (3) books which are read without reference to school assignments. Here will be found plenty of good fiction, plays and poetry, and travel; indeed, books in all of the fields mentioned above will at some time or other fall into this category.

1. Reference Books

A collection of basic reference books is indispensable to a school library of whatever size. Included in this category are dictionaries, encyclopedias, and handbooks of various kinds.

The selection of encyclopedias and other reference books should be made with the following criteria in mind. First, are the editors competent authorities? Second, is the book recent or must it be supplemented by other material to bring it up to date? Third, in an encyclopedia, are the articles signed and are there bibliographies? Fourth, is there a satisfactory system of cross-references?

For a library serving the elementary and junior high schools excellent juvenile encyclopedias are available. These are inclusive in content, simple in style, and rich in graphic material; they are planned, too, to correlate closely with the school curriculum. Generally speaking, encyclopedias in special fields are both highly technical and expensive and should be purchased by a school library only after careful consideration.

Annuals supplying current information are published by most of the standard encyclopedias. The almanac (a good example is the *World Almanac*) is cheap, is easily procurable, and provides a large amount of valuable statistical information. There are more expensive statistical reference books, published annually or biennially, which are very useful to the library which can afford them; certain government publications in this class, such as the *Statistical Abstract of the United States* and the *Abstract of the United States Census*, may be obtained at small cost from the Superintendent of Documents, or without charge through a Congressman.

Another government publication which should by all means be added to the school-library reference shelves is the yearbook published by the Department of Agriculture. The last few volumes—*Soils and Men* (1938), *Food and Life* (1939), *Farmers in a Changing World* (1940), *Climate and Man* (1941)—have special interest and usefulness in a high-school library. Other government documents useful in school libraries and obtainable free or at small cost are listed in the *Standard Catalog for High-School Libraries*. The Superintendent of Documents will send price lists on request.

A library needs a book of quotations and anthologies of English and American poetry. Biographical reference books on authors of the present and past are useful. Chronological outlines and epitomes and historic notebooks and date-books are needed only by the large school library. For the most part, the information supplied by this type of reference book is available in textbook form or in the work of authoritative historians.

One good inclusive atlas will be helpful, but purchases in this field should be made with caution for the reasons that geographical boundaries frequently change, classrooms are usually well supplied with wall maps, and many of the maps which help students most are to be found in history texts. Historical reference books and sets which emphasize graphic features and include a rich supply of illustrations and maps from authentic sources have great value.

Other reference books may be found by referring to *A Basic Book Collection for High Schools* (American Library Association) and to the *Standard Catalog for High-School Libraries* and the *Children's Catalog* (H. W. Wilson Co.). The *Subscription Books Bulletin*, published quarterly by the American Library Association, gives expert, unbiased evaluations for all encyclopedias and other subscription sets and should be consulted by librarians before buying such source materials.

2. Books Used in Connection with Classwork

The selection of books in the second group—books in the various subject-matter fields, to which the classroom teacher refers the pupils and which take the place of the one or two textbooks formerly considered adequate—is most successful when it becomes a co-operative enterprise. Here the teachers may apply knowledge of their own special fields, and the librarian may contribute her general knowledge of books and her experience in selecting them, her broad outlook over books in all fields, her acquaintance with what the library contains and what each department is using, her familiarity with what boys and girls actually read and use, and her awareness of current publications, gained from the reading of book reviews, the checking of book lists, and visits to bookstores and publishers.

With faculty and librarian working together, it is possible to provide books not only for the advanced student but also for the less able reader who needs to find the same information in simpler terms. One of the noteworthy features of the modern school library is the wide range presented by the books placed on a reserve shelf by a teacher for the use of a grade or class; side by side on such a shelf we find material for pupils who use books with ease and simple restatements of the same facts for less competent readers. For this reason there is an advantage in a situation where a central library is used by senior high, junior high, and elementary schools. To a surprising extent the books are used interchangeably, the elementary school finding, for example, that a book on Indians purchased for high-school use will supply needed information about South America, while an art class in senior high school may reread fairy tales in order to acquire background and inspiration for designing stage settings.

The books in all the subject-matter fields, when used by a skilful teacher, contribute to the enrichment of the curriculum. Pupils in a social studies class in search of information which will show the life and customs of America during a certain period will range through books on ar-

chitecture, costumes, science and medicine, literature, slavery and abolition, transportation, communication, and other topics. They will use biographies of great men and the accounts of industries important in the development of the nation. A biology teacher will find in the lives of travelers and explorers, as well as in the biographies of scientists, much material bearing on his classwork. Books on aviation, automobiles, engines, and inventions provide practical problems for the physics classes; and science and music teachers will combine in discovering books which treat jointly the topics of acoustics and music and musical instruments. English classes will read widely and intensively in the fields of poetry, the drama, and good fiction. There are also an increasing number of good books for young people on the family and the home, on budgeting, on clothing, and on personal hygiene and public health, all of which may be used in connection with courses on homemaking and home economics and on biology. Here, too, books on the fine arts, interior decoration, house planning, and house furnishing contribute to a pupil's preparation for life.

a. Science and Technology. Science and technology currently offer particularly rich fields for high-school reading, for there have never been so many and such excellent books written on popular science. Criteria for appraising these books are, of course, accuracy, authority on the part of the writer, and, especially important in selecting books for boys and girls, readability. The *Standard Catalog for High-School Libraries*, compiled by Dorothy Cook with the aid of teachers, librarians, and specialists, the *Children's Catalog* (Grades I–IX), and *A Basic Book Collection for High Schools* are invaluable aids in selecting books in this field. The *Booklist*, published monthly by the American Library Association, evaluates current publications.

b. Poetry and Drama. The librarian, in co-operation with the teachers of English, can see to it that the great poets of the past and the poets of the present who appeal to young people are represented. Many of the fine contemporary plays make stirring reading for young people. For the field of literature, too, a basic selection can be found in the lists mentioned above, but each school library will naturally build up its collection of modern literature along individual lines. Starting with a strong teacher's interest in a certain writer or group of writers, enthusiasm for their books spreads through a school. Reading interests and tastes are also influenced by geographical location and by the type of community, and the

school library in building up its collection must take into account the characteristics and dominant interests of the school and its pupils.

c. Biography. Biography is more popular with young readers than it used to be. This may be in part because boys and girls are more alert to what men have done and are doing in the world, and in part because the last few years have brought forth a number of genuinely readable biographies for young people. Many biographies written for adults are popular with boys and girls from the age of twelve. The selection of biography should be based on the following criteria: Has the author had access to adequate sources of information? Has he used this material to make a careful portrait without violating the rules of good taste? Has he the power to make the man he portrays real and interesting to the reader, and does he show him in true proportion to the times in which he lived?

d. Travel. Travel books, too, when they are vivid and dramatic, telling of strange and possibly dangerous lands and experiences, are popular. In selecting books in this field we should ask: Has the author himself visited the country he describes? Does he observe keenly and with understanding? Does he keep his picture of a country and a people in perspective? Is he able to convey to his readers the impression made upon him? Books which describe the author's own experiences in following a dangerous career or profession in other lands have a strong personal appeal for young readers.

e. Other Fields. Similar criteria may be used in the selection of books dealing with the arts, languages, home economics, and the other fields in which classroom instruction may be supplemented and enriched through wide reading. Again, the basic book lists already cited may be used to advantage, but the interests and needs of the individual school will be the determining factor in a final choice.

3. Books Read without Reference to School Assignment

As has been indicated already, no hard-and-fast distinction can be drawn between books which are read for class assignments and those which are read for other purposes. Reading for help in class work and for recreation are frequently indistinguishable; a pupil may select a book on popular science from the shelf for fun and not because it is connected with his work. Most of the books in the various subject-matter fields will, therefore, fall into this third category at one time or another. In addition, there are certain types of books which, although they may occasionally

be consulted in connection with class work, are more frequently read for pleasure or for other extra-curricular purposes.

a. Fiction. The majority of boys and girls, like the majority of their elders, find their keenest pleasure in stories. Stories which help a boy or girl to make personal adjustments, stories which set standards and offer ideals, stories which strengthen the imagination and enable young people to comprehend conditions of life other than their own, stories which give the reader a better understanding of the lives of his fellow-beings—all are a vitally important part of a school library.

The range in fiction will be wide. Some of the older writers, such as Scott, Dickens, Dumas, and Brontë, have a sure appeal and should be represented. Among the moderns there are fine novels which provide a rare experience for the young reader. Pupils with a taste for history will find many stories with an excellent historical background, while for those who prefer to read about the present there are plenty of novels describing the contemporary scene with sanity and proportion.

b. Vocational Guidance. Numerous books on vocations are now available. Professions and trades have been described by capable writers in such a way as to give genuine help to young people deciding upon a career. The books available vary greatly in quality, and the librarian must be alert to choose those which are well written and reliable. Some of the best and most inspiring vocational reading is to be found in the lives of such individuals as Madame Curie, Pasteur, Edison, Audubon, and others. Suggested titles of books and pamphlets in this field will be found in lists given at the end of the chapter.

II. General Principles of Selection

Some specific criteria of selection have been suggested for the various kinds of books included in the school library. In addition, certain general principles should be borne in mind in building up and maintaining a well-rounded collection.

1. Provision for All Types of Readers

All types of boys and girls and all grades of reading ability must be provided for, and it will therefore be necessary at times to include titles not found in the standard lists. With the co-operation of the teachers concerned with remedial reading, the librarian can handle this matter in a way to satisfy the need of the retarded reader without lowering the standards of the library.

The rapid development of children's literature during the last twenty-five years and the increasing emphasis laid on fine illustrations have resulted in a rich and varied supply of books for boys and girls of elementary-school age. The difficulty lies in choosing from such an abundance. Lists such as Nora Beust's *Five Hundred Books for Children;* the H. W. Wilson Company's *Children's Catalog;* the *Graded List of Books for Children,* compiled by a Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association; and others listed at the end of the chapter, as well as the reviews in the *New York Times Book Review* and the *Herald Tribune's* "Books," will be helpful. In general, the same criteria of selection should prevail as for the high-school library, proper attention being given to the reading ability of the children for whom the books are provided.

2. Distribution of Books in Different Fields

No hard-and-fast rule as to the percentage of books to be bought in the different fields will hold good for all libraries.[1] One generalization that may be made is that 20 per cent of the book fund is probably not too much to spend on fiction. In order to be sure that the library is growing in well-balanced fashion, the librarian will find it advisable to check it from time to time against a standard list, such as *A Basic Book Collection for High-School Libraries* and the *Standard Catalog for High Schools* and its supplements.

3. Special Items of Purchase

a. Fine Editions. It is important in planning the book collection that some well-illustrated books in beautiful editions be included. These books, not circulated as the other books are, but kept in a special case or a corner of the library where they are available to students who wish to browse, will help to promote appreciation of books and will train boys and girls in the knowledge of how beautiful a thing a book can be. When the older novels are bought (Scott, Dickens, Thackeray, Jane Austen), care should be taken to secure them in illustrated editions, with large type and an attractive page.

b. Textbooks. Although textbooks are far more attractive in appear-

[1] For suggested distribution of books see Mary Peacock Douglas, *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1941; and *Standard Catalog for High-School Libraries.*

ance and style than they used to be, and though occasionally one serves to good purpose in the library, too many of them will make the shelves dull. Another point to be watched in this connection is the tendency of teachers to ask for more copies of a supplementary reading book than they actually need. Each library will have to work out for itself according to its own particular situation this matter of duplication and the buying of supplementary reading texts. However, speaking generally, not more than four copies of a text to be used for supplementary reading should be bought with library funds. If more copies are needed, they should be paid for with department funds, added to the library records, and housed either in library or classroom, depending on space and individual conditions.

c. Subscription Sets. With rare exceptions (such as standard encyclopedias) subscription sets should never be bought. In cases where it is necessary to evaluate such sets, the *Subscription Books Bulletin* should be consulted.

d. Pamphlets. Much valuable material today is found in pamphlets. Such series as "The Headline Books," published by the Foreign Policy Association, and the pamphlets on "World Affairs," published by Farrar and Rinehart, are indispensable in the up-to-date high-school library. *A Basic Book Collection,* the *Standard Catalog for High-School Libraries,* and the *Booklist* all list sources for recommended pamphlet material. The H. W. Wilson "Vertical File Service" provides a convenient order routine that saves much time.

III. A Clearinghouse for Book Selection

In selecting books for the school library the librarian holds a key position, for she is aware of the needs of the whole school and of the growth of the library in all the different subject-matter fields. The librarian, or better yet, a library committee consisting of the librarian and members chosen from the faculty, serves as a kind of clearinghouse to bring about a well-rounded development of the library. Since the librarian is in daily contact with the pupils and teachers, she sees what use is made of the library collection; she knows book prices and the most economical methods of ordering and buying;[2] and her knowledge will help the committee to apportion the book funds to meet the needs of the greatest number.

[2] A routine for book ordering will be found in Douglas, *op. cit.*, pp. 69–72.

Particularly in building up the fiction collection, the wise librarian will take counsel with the pupils and will encourage them to suggest books for the library, since the interest and co-operation of the boys and girls who use the books will help to keep the selection practical rather than theoretical. A small senior high school group may be invited by the librarian to survey their school library, noting library weaknesses and making suggestions for broadening and improving the collection. This is good for both the students and the library, for unless the library stands in the center of the school, reaching out to all other parts of the school through a spirit of co-operation and especially through a balanced selection of books —a selection that is the result of thought and care and imagination and that combines the interest and efforts of teachers and pupils with that of the librarian—it can never be a school library in the truest sense.

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BOOK-REVIEWING PERIODICALS

Booklist (semimonthly except August). American Library Association, 520 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago. $3.00.

Descriptive and critical notes on new books suitable for small libraries. Special section of children's books.

Books (Weekly). New York Tribune, Inc., 230 W. 41st St., New York City. $1.00.

Supplement to the Sunday edition of the *New York Herald Tribune.* Contains book reviews of new books, with a section of books for young people.

Horn Book (Bi-monthly). Horn Book, Inc., 264 Boylston St., Boston. $2.50.

Articles on books and writers and critical reviews of books for children and young people.

New York Times Book Review (Weekly). Times Publishing Co., Times Square, New York City. $2.00.

Regular supplement to the Sunday edition of the *New York Times.* Contains reviews of new books with a section devoted to books for children and young people.

Subscription Books Bulletin (Quarterly). American Library Association. $2.00.

Evaluations of new reference titles and subscription sets.

CHAPTER XI

OTHER AIDS TO LEARNING

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I. INTRODUCTION

In the past few years those concerned with the education of youth have realized the value of student activity and exploration. The old prescribed curriculums have been revised to suit the demands of an increased and more varied student personnel. Emphasis has been placed on the functional and core curriculums—curriculums which emphasize activity on the part of the student and preparation for a definite place in society, curriculums based upon the actual needs of young people, curriculums built around one broad central purpose or theme. This change in methods of teaching and curriculum organization has added to the importance of the library in education to such an extent that it has not only supplemented the textbook but has in many cases supplanted it.

As the use of the textbook diminishes, the librarian will need to be better informed than ever before as to content of textbooks if she is to build where these leave off. It seems reasonable that, as textbooks become fewer and other aids more abundant, the library should be the center of textbook organization and that the librarian assume more responsibility in their selection and distribution.

This would seem to be the golden age for the school librarian, who has too long played only a minor part in curriculum development. Her ability to assume leadership at this time will depend on the ease with which she is able to use all learning aids.

II. AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

The extensive use of audio-visual aids in education requires a clear understanding of the true meaning of the term. Educators speak of

visual education, visual instruction, visual-sensory aids, or audio-visual aids. Despite the various modes of expression a rather definite idea of the term is now commonly accepted. This meaning is not restricted to the narrowly construed function of visual instruction which implied the mere use of the eye as an instructive agent. Teachers and librarians who accepted this interpretation had not considered the possibilities of other than printed aids to learning provided, for example, in the use of the phonograph, the radio, the sound motion picture, or the school journey. The instructional materials provided by the whole field of audio-visual aids take into account the utilization of all the senses. Audio-visual aids are visual-sensory materials "used in the classroom, or in other teaching situations, to facilitate the understanding of the written or spoken word."[1] The sense of hearing is a vital factor in audio-visual instruction, but all the senses are implied in an educational program which attempts instruction with audio-visual materials.

Unfortunately, many workers in the field of education believe that the showing of pictures, particularly motion pictures, constitutes an adequate audio-visual instruction program. Very frequently a map, a still picture, a specimen, a graph, or a chart might be the better agent to provide an accurate conception, interpretation, or appreciation. Each audio-visual aid should be examined in the light of its effectiveness as a teaching device and discarded when a more valuable tool becomes available. A school system may have a very elaborate program of audio-visual instruction and possess the most up-to-date equipment and yet fail to perform a really good task of teaching with such aids to learning. If this is the case, it should be remembered that results desired through an educational experience are secured through application of the correct tools of learning and through the adjustment of the type of aid to the kind of teaching practiced.

The variety of audio-visual aids in education is extensive. Some appreciation for the materials included in this field may be gained by examining the following list of aids as outlined in a state syllabus on visual aids in education.[2]

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[1] E. C. Dent, *Audio-visual Handbook*, p. 1. Chicago: Society for Visual Education, Inc. (100 East Ohio Street), 1939 (third edition).

[2] G. W. Leman, *Visual Aids in Education*, pp. 1–2. Patterson, New Jersey: State Teachers College, 1941.

A. Visual
   1. Printed page, especially illustrations
   2. Blackboard
   3. Maps and globes
   4. Charts and graphs
   5. Pictorial materials—flat pictures (photographs and prints)
   6. Microscopic slides
   7. Models and specimens
   8. Exhibits
   9. Stereographs
   10. Projected photographs, drawings, printed materials
      a. Flat prints and photographs (opaque projection)
      b. Still films
      c. Filmslides (single and double frame)
      d. Microfilm reader
      e. Projected stereograph
      f. Lantern slides
         (1) Photographic: standard $3\frac{1}{4}'' \times 4''$
                miniature $2'' \times 2''$
         (2) Handmade
      g. Motion pictures, silent

B. Visual-sensory
   1. Field trip or school journey
   2. Collections
   3. Dramatization and pageantry
   4. Marionettes and puppets
   5. Table-tops and the sand table
   6. Demonstrations and experiments

C. Direct visual-auditory
   1. Sound-on-film motion pictures
   2. Radio
   3. Television
   4. Sound film slide

The following direct auditory aids may be added to this list: phonograph records and transcriptions.

The development of progressive education, the introduction of the social sciences, and the enrichment of the curriculum which stimulated the use of a variety of nonbook materials—pamphlets, newspapers, magazines—also resulted in the acceptance of visual-aids as legitimate and necessary tools of instruction. The librarian was suddenly flooded with requests for pictures, maps, charts, and other nonbook aids to learning.

It seemed logical to the librarian to start a picture file, and with her experience with vertical-file material, it was a comparatively simple adjustment to incorporate a picture, a map, and a chart collection into the library. School administrators and teachers felt this to be a logical and worth-while step, and although an individual teacher might have a private collection of post cards, art prints, or charts, the majority relied upon the library to furnish them.

The introduction of some of the more complicated visual aids, such as slides, filmslides, and motion pictures, seemed to present a different problem not only to school administrators and teachers but also to the librarian herself, who was sometimes the last to realize the importance of this new medium and its relation to book materials. In some instances the librarian has not accepted the responsibility or has recognized too late the possibilities of these new teaching resources. This was probably because these new visual aids required machines for projection, which were in the beginning difficult to operate and, in the case of the 35 mm. motion picture projection, even hazardous. For this reason it came to be a rather general rule that the mechanical types of visual aids should be handled by a faculty member who had had some training with such equipment, and a science or manual training teacher often became the visual-aids administrator. Much credit is due these teachers who contributed time and effort in furthering the use of visual aids, but it was only natural that they should be especially interested in the materials in their particular field. In many schools teachers thought of the motion picture or slide projector as belonging to the science or some other department. This department often felt the same way and occasionally refused to allow its use by other teachers, justifying the department's action by the statement that the mechanical equipment was never handled properly by other instructors. Since much of the early material in visual education was prepared for science teachers, this situation continued for some time without protest. In fact, other teachers seemed relieved not to have to bother with the mechanical aspects of projection. However, as visual aids became available in other fields, especially in the social studies, as administrators realized the value of these new aids, and as teacher-training institutions started to offer courses in their use, it was inevitable that the audio-visual program must expand and that a person be placed in charge and given time for its proper administration. Many of the science teachers were given this new position, and some have since become directors of visual education in large school systems.

The school librarian has been slow in realizing that audio-visual aids fall into the same category as other curriculum-enrichment materials. Moreover, the curriculum of library schools has not been expanded to provide for training librarians in the administration of these aids. Teachers also have been unaware of their possibilities, and the librarian who has become interested has often had to be a missionary. Because of the poor quality of the first visual aids, to say nothing of teacher inertia, many instructors in high schools and colleges still refuse to recognize their possibilities.

The American Library Association has formally recognized the library's place in the field of visual aids since March, 1934, when the Visual Methods Committee was appointed. To investigate the role and responsibility of the library in the distribution of educational films, a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation in 1940 made possible a study by a librarian under the direction of the Joint Committee on Educational Films and Libraries. The following groups in addition to the American Library Association were represented: Motion Picture Project of the American Council on Education; the American Film Center; and the Association of School Film Libraries. In the report of this study[3] McDonald discusses the problems of supplying and using films in the school library, the college and university library, adult-education programs, and the public library. Patterns of service developed by these types of libraries are described completely, and a training program for film librarians is outlined.

The librarian who undertakes the responsibility for audio-visual aids in a school is confronted with various problems, depending upon the size and location of the community. If she is in a large city school system, a great part of the job is that of distributing materials already available from a central collection. Films, slides, filmslides, still films, and, often, pictures, charts, maps, records, and museum objects are furnished by the board of education or by agencies such as the public library or museum. The problem here is relatively simple—that of keeping abreast of teachers' needs in the same way as she keeps informed of needed book materials, supplying them at the proper time, arranging for projection, and publicizing available materials. The storage problem will be only that of keeping them in a safe place while they are in the building.

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[3] G. D. McDonald, *Educational Motion Pictures and Libraries.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1942.

Most librarians do not find themselves in such a fortunate position. They serve a school located in a small community where there is no central source of material. Here the librarian's problem is that of ascertaining the resources available in her particular location, determining what the school can wisely spend for purchase and rental and securing these and free materials when available. There are usually several state or county agencies that serve as distributing centers for audio-visual aids, including the state department of education, the state museum, and college extension departments. Much material can be secured for transportation charges only, although occasionally a rental fee is charged. Cooperative film libraries have been started in many communities. Some schools make a small appropriation for purchase of material, and it then becomes the problem of the librarian to determine what material to purchase, how to acquire and store it, and how to make it available for use.

The mechanical aspects of the program are often the most discouraging. Equipment is expensive, and many schools simply cannot afford its purchase from the regular appropriation. Principals often do not feel that the advantages are sufficient to justify the outlay of hundreds of dollars in expensive equipment. Besides the machines themselves, it is necessary to have dark shades and screens. Often the difficulties seem overwhelming, but when it is realized that schools sometimes spend $2.00 per pupil for books, that visual aids can reach hundreds of pupils at one showing, and that the life of a film, slide, or other visual aid is much greater than that of a book, the first step in breaking down resistance has been accomplished. Parent-teacher groups are often willing to help in purchasing equipment, and after a projector has been secured it is possible to raise funds through programs where a small admission fee is charged.

It is important in the proper organization of an audio-visual program that machines and films or other aids be carefully scheduled so that teachers can depend upon receiving the material when needed for a particular unit of work. The machines should be properly inspected and checked to insure perfect condition. There is nothing more likely to impede the advancement of an audio-visual program than mechanical troubles which are easily avoidable if a few precautions are taken. The librarian herself cannot be expected to be responsible for machine care, and it is important that a competent teacher be put in charge of all equipment. Pupils with mechanical ability may be utilized to advantage, and in many schools they assume full responsibility for the care and scheduling of machines. Proper operation of equipment is essential. It is advisable that teachers

be familiar with machines, but in schools where it has been tried, a student-operating crew has proved to be more satisfactory. Pupils learn easily and are naturally interested in anything mechanical. A reliable group of boys and girls who can be scheduled in free periods should be built up in a school. Not only will it solve the problem of operation, but it becomes a valuable extra-curricular activity.

Statistics for visual aids are difficult to keep in such a way that they will have any meaning. A film or slide may be charged to a teacher who will show it to six classes, or about 150 pupils. Or it may be shown to an audience of 3,000, or to only one teacher who wishes to preview for content. What record of this can be kept which will have meaning? The general opinion seems to be that the important item is the number of pupils who see the film. To get a record, it is necessary to enclose a form with each visual aid, requesting information on the number of showings and the number instructed. These statistics can be valid only if borrowers will co-operate by supplying the information to the library. For comparative purposes it also seems advisable to keep records of the number of visual aids circulated per month. This gives no indication of the use made of them, but if in January, 1941, 1,000 reels of film were circulated, and in January 1942, 1,800, the increased use is obvious.

The librarian should make every attempt to integrate visual aids with other materials of instruction. They are never complete in themselves and cannot replace the teacher. There are certain situations where they are of paramount aid in teaching, but only if properly used. They are worthless and even harmful if used merely to avoid teaching or as a treat for the students. In a study made by Jayne[4] of the integrated versus the nonintegrated use of motion pictures, the results revealed that children profited considerably more when the film was presented and studied as a definite part of a unit of work than when it was merely introduced at random and without relation to immediate classroom problems.

It is evident that the effective utilization of audio-visual aids in the school program requires, besides the presence of a co-ordinator of these aids, such as the librarian who is envisioned in this discussion, a faculty which is both understanding and sympathetic toward the program. The preparation of teachers for satisfactory use of audio-visual aids is of extreme importance. The teacher should accept as a necessary part of his

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[4] C. D. Jayne, "The Integrated versus the Nonintegrated Use of Moving Pictures in the Classroom," *Journal of Experimental Education*, V (September, 1936), 7–16.

lesson preparation a knowledge of the purpose of the film, slide, or recording that he proposes to use. He must set the stage for the film or recording; it cannot be presented "cold" to an audience. The skill of the teacher in proceeding from the known to the unknown in pupil experience is vital, especially in paving the way for the follow-up which should inevitably be the result of such a learning situation.

Teaching with audio-visual aids to education involves careful selection of materials by teachers and librarians. In the recent survey of the public schools of Newark, New Jersey, emphasis is laid on the selection of all types of instructional materials as an integral part of the curriculum development. Such aids need to be related to the curriculum offerings of the school; integration is achieved by having both groups analyze carefully the course of study and determining from the audio-visual materials at hand, or reasonably available, which items can be used for each unit of work. It is here that the librarian with her wider knowledge of all types of supplementary material can make a contribution. Her principles of book selection can be adapted to the evaluation of audio-visual aids.

The selection of audio-visual aids for the curriculum offerings of the school necessitates the application of standards to each aid under consideration. The suitability of each item should be judged on the basis of such considerations as the following:

1. Specifically, for what educational purpose is it designed?
2. To what extent will it probably accomplish these purposes?
3. Is it interesting? Comprehensible? Concrete? Clear? Concise? Natural?
4. Does it suggest new questions, problems, materials, implications?
5. Is the material that it presents reliable and authentic?
6. Is the educational element overshadowed by the dramatic or the spectacular?
7. Can it be used effectively by or for the pupils for whom it is designed?
8. Is it free from undesirable advertising or propaganda?
9. Is it easily and conveniently operated, manipulated, handled, or used?
10. Is the price reasonable? How does it compare with the price of similar products?
11. Is it well made mechanically? Durable?
12. To what extent is it guaranteed, if this is essential?
13. Can repairs and replacements be obtained easily?
14. Is there any possibility of danger in the using of it?
15. Will it represent an attractive and respected piece of equipment?
16. Is the company that produces it reliable?[5]

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[5] H. C. McKown and A. B. Roberts, *Audio-visual Aids to Instruction*, p. 41. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940.

Integration is a key word which teacher and librarian should constantly keep in the foreground when relating audio-visual aids to the many phases of a school curriculum. Correlation of the various teaching aids so that one is not overworked or another neglected is essential. Some teachers may be inclined to stress a particular type of aid, and the librarian can correct this by securing the best device for each teaching problem. Those concerned with audio-visual programs should constantly examine educational activities in order to ascertain to what extent a well-balanced program of selection has been evolved.

1. Motion Pictures

The motion picture, one of the most vital forces in the education of both children and adults, combines the advantages of sound, motion, and color into an exceptional teaching device. Because of its outstanding value in the field of audio-visual education, it will be considered in greater detail than some of the other aids presented. Suggestions for integrating the motion picture with the school curriculum or criteria for the evaluation of films might, with slight alteration, be applied to the other audio-visual aids presented.

Motion pictures come in three sizes: 8 mm., 16 mm., and 35 mm. widths. The first motion pictures to be used in schools were on 35 mm. stock, but because of the greater fire hazard caused by these films, the expense involved, and the greater difficulty of operation, their use in schools has been almost discontinued. The majority of school films are now produced exclusively in 16 mm. width. Because the 8 mm. film is inexpensive, it has been used extensively for amateur and home movies, but is used rarely for schools. Until recently, the majority of educational films were silent, while today the sound film is becoming increasingly popular. The color film is rapidly becoming more important as the technique of color reproduction is being perfected.

A. EQUIPMENT

Since the majority of new films are being produced in sound, and since it is possible to project a silent film on a sound machine, schools purchasing equipment should secure a sound machine even if it is much more expensive. The number of projectors needed for each school will depend upon the number of teachers using equipment and the extent of use. One projector for every 15 to 20 teachers should be a minimum requirement. For schools with small auditoriums, the smaller models which can be used

with greater ease in the classroom are perfectly adequate. Some companies are making machines with two speakers, one for classroom and the other for auditorium purposes. Before purchasing, a study of the standard projectors[6] should be made, and local dealers will allow a demonstration period. An important item to consider in purchasing is repairs. It is advisable to secure a guarantee of repair and inspection service from your local dealer.

B. SOURCES OF FILMS

a. Purchase. While there are many producers of 16 mm. films, the two outstanding educational producers are the Teaching Films Division of Eastman Kodak Company, which until recently has produced only silent films, and the Erpi Classroom Films, which produces sound pictures only. New companies, such as the Vocational Guidance Films and Bald Eagle Films, have entered the field within recent years. Some companies, such as Castle Films, which produce shorts for theaters, also sell to the educational field. The *Educational Film Catalog* evaluates all films for educational purposes. Before purchasing any film this catalog should be consulted. The prices of silent films range from $15.00 to $25.00; of sound, from $17.50 to $50.00 per reel.

b. Rental or Lease. There is an unlimited number of distributors of films on a rental basis. The charge varies from 50 cents to $3.00 a reel, plus transportation charges. A list of these distributors can be found in the *Educational Film Catalog* or in the government publication, *Sources of Visual Aids and Equipment.*[7]

Within the past three years the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America have made available for lease to schools theatrical shorts which have been released for more than a year. Some of the best film material is available from this source. All of them have been evaluated in terms of the school curriculum, and a complete *Catalog of Classroom Films*[8] is available. The rates are unusually low as this is a nonprofit group and the charges are for the expense of prints only.

The Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education

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[6] Committee on Scientific Aids to Learning, *Recommended Procedure and Equipment Specifications for Educational 16 mm. Projection.* New York: National Research Council (31 E. Forty-second Street), 1941.

[7] C. M. Koon, *Sources of Visual Aids and Equipment for Instructional Use in Schools.* United States Office of Education Pamphlet No. 80, 1941.

[8] Teaching Film Custodians, 25 W. Forty-second Street, New York City.

Association has edited a group of short subjects from theatrical features, such as *Captains Courageous*, for use in teaching human relations. These are available for lease at a very reasonable rate from the New York University Film Library. This film library has available educational and documentary motion pictures on broad economic problems affecting American life and on physical education, safety, science, and vocational guidance.

c. Co-operative Film Libraries. In various localities, school systems or extension divisions of state colleges and universities have set up co-operative film libraries. By depositing a print of a film in this library a school is privileged to use films deposited by other schools. A certain number of films may be used per year for each print deposited.

d. Free Films. There are several sources from which films may be obtained without charge. There are also certain agencies and publications which provide valuable aid in the selection of films which are usually available free of charge.

Various extension divisions of colleges and state museums have built up collections of films which they furnish to schools throughout the state for transportation charges only. These must be booked well in advance as the demand for these films is large.

Many commercial concerns produce films for advertising purposes which have distinct educational value, especially in recent years when the advertising has been practically eliminated. These are available often with the service of an operator and machine. Others may be secured for transportation charges only. The Y.M.C.A Motion Picture Bureau[9] is one of the best sources for these free films. The pamphlet, *Free Films for Schools*, published by DeVry, is very helpful in selecting these free films. *Business Screen* magazine lists many of them and some are included in *Educational Screen*.

The government has produced many films which are available for transportation charges. The *Directory of United States Government Films*, which is reissued frequently by the United States Office of Education Film Service, lists these films, many of which are extremely valuable for school or community use.

The Association of School Film Libraries, with headquarters in New York City, has been financed by the General Education Board to assist schools, colleges, and other educational institutions in implementing the

[9] Y.M.C.A Motion Picture Bureau, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.

film program. Schools, libraries, and visual education departments may become members of the association. The association makes available desirable educational films usually shown only in commercial theaters. It keeps educators up to date on film events through a subscription information service. Furthermore, it is active in the establishment of regional film libraries.

The American Film Center, also located in New York City, provides a valuable film service for schools. It selects films on any desired subject, arranges the program, and provides study guides, equipment, and operator. By contract with local projectionists the service may be had in various centers throughout the country. The American Film Center's publication, *Film News*, presents timely and significant news of documentary and educational motion pictures from many sources.

C. ORGANIZATION

The library should provide a safe storage place for purchased films. This should be comparatively cool and capable of being locked, as motion pictures are too expensive to be placed on an open shelf. They should be kept in humidor cans. Some system of cataloging and classifying films should be used. The Dewey decimal system which is used for books has been found very satisfactory in a number of school systems. A card catalog of the films should be kept up to date at all times. Since it is not always possible for a teacher to look at a film before selecting, this catalog should contain as much information about the film as possible. The following catalog card has been used successfully in the Newark Schools.

If a school has a large film collection it is advisable to publish a mimeographed catalog arranged by subject for use of teachers.

A record of the accession-shelf list is also useful. This should include the title and number on the film, the purchase price, date of purchase, names of producer and company from which purchased.

Teachers' guides, many of which contain excellent teaching suggestions and bibliographies, accompany many films. These should be kept in a vertical file, arranged alphabetically by title, and circulated with the film. Where feasible, the guide should be sent to the teacher in advance of the film.

D. SELECTION

Films should be selected carefully to fit the needs of various subject fields. As with book selection, the budget should be distributed fairly and careful standards of quality should be drawn up for the selection of

films. A rating sheet, recommended by the American Council on Education, will be found helpful.[10] As previously pointed out, the *Educational Film Catalog* is of value in selecting films for school use. Evaluations of motion pictures regularly appear in educational periodicals such as *School Management* and the *School Executive*, and in specialized magazines like

TRANSPORTATION

684 Airplane trip. PEJ
11 min. sd. Erpi, 1938

In a modern airliner a mother and her young daughter journey with other passengers from Los Angeles to Salt Lake City. Scenes depict servicing operations, loading with mail and express, safety belts, plane's instruments, serving a meal, making up the sleeping berths, receiving radio reports, taking off, landing, and the panorama of cities, farms, rivers, and mountains.

P—Primary
E—Elementary
J—Junior High School
S—Senior High School

Education Screen. Frequently these evaluations are written by groups of teachers and visual-education specialists, who prepare them co-operatively. An example of this activity is that of the Classroom Films Committee of the Department of Secondary School Teachers of the National Education Association. The evaluations of this committee are prepared by teachers who see new films, discuss them, and write their comments based on the group discussion. These evaluations appear chiefly in *Secondary Education*, the bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Teachers.

[10] Edgar Dale and L. L. Ramseyer, *Teaching with Motion Pictures*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1937.

E. USE

The motion picture is capable of showing various techniques and communicating experiences which cannot be demonstrated by less expensive mediums. The following functions of film described by Hoban have been found especially useful in teaching.

1. Depiction of continuity of processes and events such as the steps in the manufacture of an article of clothing or the sequences leading to the Revolutionary War.
2. Depiction of observable action which makes available to pupils a real experience such as the various processes in the making of bread.
3. Depiction of unobservable action. . . . .
4. Development of attitudes. Films which arouse interest and develop initiative and activity.[11]

Motion pictures are utilized in two ways in schools—for auditorium programs and for classroom teaching. Occasionally a film will be more useful for an auditorium group, but most teachers have found from experience that an educational film may be used most successfully in the classroom with a student group that is studying the subject which the film supplements. That a picture is an educational device with limitations as well as advantages must be considered carefully by teachers and librarians in selecting and using films in the educational programs.

The use of the motion picture in forums and discussion groups presents a new field of endeavor that should be rewarding to the librarian because of the extended opportunity for correlating visual materials with many additional forms of printed materials—chiefly books, pamphlets, and periodicals. In 1941 a series of film forums was inaugurated under the auspices of a joint committee representing the American Film Center, the American Association for Adult Education, the American Association for Applied Psychology, and the American Library Association. These forums were based on the theme "What We Are Defending," and was presented in several public libraries throughout the country. The technique of the film forum includes the showing of the motion picture which serves as the topic for later group discussion. A natural outgrowth of the forum is the study and reading which result from the discussion. Motion-picture forum groups of this type contribute to increasing public under-

[11] C. F. Hoban and S. B. Zisman, *Visualizing the Curriculum*, pp. 98–105. New York: Cordon Co., Inc., 1937.

standing of the problems emerging from the present crisis and the post-war adjustment. That schools and libraries have a direct share of the responsibility for forums of this type is evidenced by the stress placed on this activity in the plans for relating educational programs to the national defense effort.[12]

2. Lantern Slides

The lantern slide at the present time is the most widely used visual aid. This is because of the great number of slides available and the ease of projection and because most teachers are familiar with them. The standard size for lantern slides is $3\frac{1}{2} \times 4$ inches. Recently the miniature slide, which is 2×2 inches, has been introduced and popularized by amateur photographers with candid cameras.

A. EQUIPMENT

Slides are shown by means of a lantern-slide projector, available from various equipment companies. A special projector for the projection of miniature slides may be purchased, although an inexpensive kodaslide adapter for use on a standard lantern-slide machine may be secured.

B. SOURCES

a. Purchase. Some of the outstanding producers of slides include: Eastman Educational Slides, Iowa City, Iowa; Eyegate House, 330 W. Forty-second Street, New York City; Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pennsylvania; Foundation Press, 501 Bulkley Building, Cleveland, Ohio; Sims Visual Music, Quincy, Illinois; Yale University Press (Pageant of America series), 386 Fourth Avenue., New York City.

b. Rental or Free. State and city museums, public libraries, and college extension divisions often have available slides for rental or for transportation charges only.

c. School-made Slides. Excellent local material may be secured from original negatives which have been prepared by teachers and students. Handmade slides developed by teachers and pupils may also be used. Keystone View Company has available complete outfits and directions for making them.

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[12] *School and College Civilian Morale Service: How To Participate.* Washington: United States Office of Education, 1941; *What the Schools Can Do.* (Education and National Defense Series, Pamphlet No. 4.) Washington: United States Office of Education, 1941.

C. ORGANIZATION

Slides should be housed in filing cabinets which are available for this purpose. It is important that some system of arrangement by subject be used and that the slides be properly classified and cataloged. The Dewey decimal classification has been found successful where used. In Newark the following procedure is used for organization. When a new set of lantern slides is received, it is given a Dewey decimal number according to its subject. Each slide in a particular classification is also numbered consecutively. If there are one hundred slides in the group 915.1, China, the slides are labeled 915.1–1, 915.1–2, 915.1–3, and so on up to one hundred. A new group of slides on China would begin its numbers at 101 and continue from there. The Dewey number and the consecutive number are printed on a small sticker which is attached to the margin of each slide. When there are duplicates of an individual title, the number becomes 1A, 1B, 1C. The complete series of slides in one classification is then listed on a catalog card. Each card in the lantern-slide catalog is marked with an "L" in the upper right-hand corner to distinguish it from other cards. Each title with its consecutive number is listed under the general subject. The charging of slides and maintenance of statistics of use follow accepted library procedures. Manuscripts or teaching guides which often accompany sets of slides should be kept in a suitable vertical file and circulated with the slides. Often, however, this manuscript information can be typed on a card which is filed with the slide.

D. SELECTION

It is important that slides selected should be of a high quality. Hoban lists the following standards, which have been developed by directors of visual education.

1. Truth: Does the picture tell the truth; are the facts recorded accurately—free from distortion or illusion?
2. Photographic quality: Is the photography good; are the lines sharp especially in the shadow; do the main facts stand out clearly in the midst of other details; is the material modern, not antiquated?
3. Relevancy: Does the picture pertain to and does it contribute meaningful content to the topic under discussion or study?
4. Relative size of items: Does the picture include items or elements of known size so that the observer may secure a correct idea of the unknown elements?
5. Is the slide free from blemishes, smears, stains, scratches, blurs; is it substantially bound; does it contain a thumb mark?[13]

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[13] Hoban and Zisman, *op. cit.*, p. 160.

E. USE

Slides contribute greatly to the clarification of almost every subject in the curriculum. They may be used as a preview of a lesson, as the introduction to the lesson, for review purposes, and for examination or a check on progress.

3. Filmslides and Still Films

A filmslide is a narrow strip of film 35 mm. in width, on which is printed a series of pictures and text to illustrate a definite topic. The number of frames on a strip may vary from twenty-five to seventy-five. A frame is a section of film one inch in width and three-fourths of an inch in length. This space may be taken up by either a picture or text or both. Filmslides which have no text on the film are usually accompanied by a manual which includes the text to go with each frame. There are two sizes of filmslide—the single frame and the double frame. The essential difference is that on the single-frame filmslides the top of the picture runs across the film, and the film is run through the projector vertically. The top of the picture on the double-frame filmslide runs along the length of the film and is run through the projector horizontally.

The still film is similar to the double-frame filmslide except that it is larger. It is three inches in width and is composed of a series of pictures and text.

A. SOURCES

Well-known producers for filmslides are: Society for Visual Education, 100 E. Ohio Street, Chicago, Illinois; for still films: Still Films Inc., 8443 Melrose Avenue, Hollywood, California.

B. EQUIPMENT

Filmslide projectors come in two forms, an attachment for the lantern-slide projector and a separate projector made especially for filmslides. Still-film equipment consists of a special attachment for the lantern-slide projector.

C. ORGANIZATION

Filmslides and still films should be housed in proper cabinets and classified and cataloged. Newark has used the following procedure: Each filmslide is classified in the same manner in which lantern slides are classified. The same system of consecutive number and copy designation is used. The classification and consecutive numbers are marked on the container. If the filmslide has a manuscript or subtitles, this is also noted on the container. All titles in a given classification are listed on a catalog

card. An "F" in the upper right-hand corner of the card is used to distinguish this card from the lantern-slide card.

Still films are prepared in the same manner as filmslides. Each container is marked with the classification and consecutive numbers and each catalog card is marked with an "S" in the upper right-hand corner to distinguish it from lantern-slide and filmslide cards.

Filmslides and still films are charged in the same manner as other library material. A different color card should be used for each type of material. The same standards for selection as those suggested for lantern slides should be followed.

D. USE

Essentially, still films and filmslides serve the same purpose as the lantern slide. Each has its advantages and disadvantages. The following are the principal advantages of the filmslide:

1. Compared with an equal amount of pictorial material on slides, the filmslide cost is very low.
2. The filmslide is smaller and more easily stored.
3. The pictures are arranged in a carefully edited sequence.
4. Since filmslides can be made with a candid camera, it is possible at a very small cost to record for future use events that take place in the school.
5. There is available material in filmslide form that is not available in any other type of visual aid.

The filmslide has the following disadvantages:

1. Projection is neither so sharp nor so bright as that of the lantern slide.
2. Filmslides must be kept in a fixed sequence.
3. It is sometimes felt that there are too many pictures on a filmslide for use during one class period.

The still film has the same advantages and disadvantages as the filmslide except that, because of its greater size, the projection is as clear as the slide.

4. Sound-Slide Film

This is a combination of the ordinary filmslide and a phonograph record which explains the filmslide as it is projected. At the present time these are used mainly for commercial advertising, but there is no reason why they should not be valuable for school use. Many have been prepared as part of defense training by the government.

5. Stereographs

The stereograph is a double picture taken by means of two cameras or a two-lens camera which, when viewed through a stereoscope or telebinocular, is enlarged and merged into one image to create the illusion of the third dimension, or depth, in the picture. This illusion of depth which creates a sense of reality is peculiar to the stereoscopic view and is the chief reason for its prominent place among the many types of visual aids.

The stereograph is valuable in that it presents to the pupil a clearer concept of the material pictured than can be obtained through the use of any other type of picture. It is inexpensive, and there is an unlimited supply of excellent stereographs available. The main disadvantage is that only one person at a time can view a stereograph.

There are two types of stereoscopes in general use—the small stereoscope which pupils can hold in the hand and the telebinocular which is a much larger instrument and is generally placed on a table for use. The principal producer of stereographs is the Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pennsylvania.

Stereographs may be filed in cabinets provided for this purpose by firms such as the Keystone View Company. Materials should be arranged according to the Dewey decimal classification and cataloging records should conform to those described in the section pertaining to lantern slides and filmslides.

6. Picture Collections

The use of a picture collection as a visual aid is a common practice in schools and libraries, chiefly because of the ease with which these teaching materials can be assembled and used. The picture collection may consist of photographs, prints, postal cards, illustrations, charts, diagrams, graphs, posters, and cartoons. Accessibility and economy have been factors which have made it possible for nearly every school to acquire a picture collection of some size. Its effectiveness as a teaching aid has, however, been somewhat overshadowed by the development of the newer and more realistic presentations of visual material. The use of still pictures in education has been included in experimental studies of motion pictures but "were found to be generally less effective visual aids than motion pictures."[14] There are many instances where the introduction of

[14] Edgar Dale and C. F. Hoban, Jr., "Visual Education," in W. S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1331. New York: Macmillan, 1941.

materials from a standard picture collection may be used to assist the learning activities. Leman[15] points out that considerable time is saved in the use of this type of picture, for it requires no equipment for projection and material may be presented at the moment it is desired. Prints may be passed around from student to student for individual inspection and then kept on display for reference. The usefulness of a picture collection depends on the skill of the teacher in presenting the materials to the class. The librarian should assume some of the responsibility for initiating successful use of this visual aid, as merely presenting the picture to the class is not sufficient. The teacher's role is that of guide and interpreter: the class must be prepared for the items of information which it is supposed to discover from the use of the picture; relationships must be pointed out. The length of time which the teacher plans for the use of the picture is as important as any of the other factors in the situation. Hurried use of pictures is likely to leave little but blurred impressions in the minds of children. The librarian can aid the teacher to select the few really necessary pictures which may be used for a lesson, and she should endeavor to supply these in duplicate wherever possible.

A. EQUIPMENT

It is not necessary to have any particular equipment for the use of materials borrowed from a picture collection. However, if the pictures have been mounted on cards which have been prepared with punched holes, the mounts may be either strung or thumbtacked to walls and bulletin boards without detriment to the picture. In using pictures in class recitations, it is quite likely that the pictures will be handed from pupil to pupil or exhibited by the teacher or a group leader.

On the other hand, classwork with materials from a picture collection may be enhanced by the use of the opaque projector, since it makes possible the showing of the material to the whole class at one time with full detail. It is similar in construction to the lantern-slide machine, but the opaque projector is equipped with a reflecting-light system which can illuminate and project pictures from an opaque page. Materials varying in size from a postage stamp to a page from a reference book may be used. The room must be completely darkened for this kind of projection. Since opaque projection reproduces color, it permits the projection of visual

[15] G. W. Leman, *Visual Aids in Education*, p. 34. Paterson, New Jersey: State Teachers College, 1941.

materials from well-illustrated books as well as from mounted and unmounted picture collections.

The cardoscope can also be used as a method of displaying pictures. It has a mechanical rotary device by means of which it can be used to exhibit a group of pictures, diagrams, or charts. Twenty-four cards, 14×22 inches, can be mounted in the machine in metal frames, and as the machine is rotated by hand, or electrically, the various cards can be shown to the class. Two cards are visible at one time.

B. SOURCES

Photographs may be collected from various sources. If the services of a photographer are available, a variety of material may be acquired for the mounted picture collection as well as for the standard lantern slide, the filmslide, the miniature slide, and the motion-picture collections. The Newark, New Jersey, Department of Library and Visual Education has on its staff a professional photographer who has been able to expand these collections with exceptionally fine curriculum enrichment materials that may not be secured elsewhere. A photographer contributes immeasurably to the usefulness of a picture collection by reproducing illustrations from reference and textbooks, by photographing school activities, and by taking pictures of the local community. From an educational standpoint visual materials of this type are particularly important since they may be prepared to fill the definite needs of a local school system and may be immediately related to the curriculum of the individual school. This advantage cannot be overemphasized, for it makes possible the addition of desired visual materials to existing collections without delay. Schools are frequently handicapped by being limited to certain dates for the order of supplies. By constantly preparing materials, the photographer makes a real contribution to the collection of visual materials by bringing them up to date.

Many teachers and students are amateur photographers and frequently have collections of valuable negatives which may be used to advantage in the classroom. Members of the community and their friends are often willing to lend negatives of pictures they have taken. All of these sources should be used to help build up a picture collection, and pictures may also be collected from newspapers, magazines, discarded books, and travel folders. There is an abundance of worth-while material to be found in these sources. In addition, there are a number of companies dealing in reproductions and prints of famous paintings, which may be purchased in

various sizes and at various prices. These are too numerous to list, but it may be noted that the *Standard Catalog for High-School Libraries*[16] includes a helpful listing of such sources. The need for pictorial material organized around particular curriculum units has been recognized by a number of publishers who have developed sets of pictures and accompanying workbooks. A useful file of these subjects may be selected from the sets of pictures available from such agencies as Informative Picture Association, 48 North Division Avenue, Grand Rapids, Michigan; Creative Educational Society, Mankato, Minnesota; and Photographic History Service, 5537 Hollywood Boulevard, Hollywood, California. There are many other sources of such pictures; textbook and encyclopedia publishers frequently prepare this kind of material. The care with which illustrations are selected, as well as the accompanying text, make these visualized series particularly helpful to the teacher and librarian. Since they are often printed on durable stock, they are ready for immediate filing in the library picture collection.

Hoban cites the following characteristics in terms of which pictures should be evaluated: truth, clarity, grade level, relevancy, size, and number.[17]

C. ORGANIZATION

a. Suggestions for Mounting. Pictures should be cut in a paper cutter to insure even edges. The size of the mount will depend on the size of the cabinet or box used for filing the pictures. Whatever size and color of mount are finally adopted should be adhered to strictly so that the collection will offer a uniform appearance.

A guide should be used to secure uniform mounting. All pictures, regardless of size, should be mounted an equal distance from the top of the mount, with equal margins on each side of the picture. Oak tag constitutes a satisfactory mounting. Pictures are pasted at the four corners only; this makes it possible to remove a picture and use the mount a number of times.

b. Suggestions for Classifying. The most satisfactory means of classifying this material seems to be by subjects, arranged alphabetically. This arrangement, when mounts are filed vertically like cards in a catalog,

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[16] Isabel Monro (ed.), assisted by Ruth Jervis, *Standard Catalog for High-School Libraries.* New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942.

[17] Hoban and Zisman, *op. cit.*, pp. 191–92.

eliminates the need for a separate catalog and is at the same time self-indexing. Subject headings may be adapted to suit the needs of a particular situation. Two excellent references on the picture collection are:

John C. Dana, *Picture Collection.* H. W. Wilson Co., 1929 (fourth edition revised by Marcelle Frebault).

Norma Ireland, *Picture File in School, College, and Public Libraries.* Boston: F. W. Faxon Co., 1935.

Both of these books contain lists of subject headings, and suggestions for collecting, mounting, filing, and using a picture collection.

7. Bulletin Boards

When timeliness is the chief factor in determining the value of information to be used in supplementing book aids to learning, the bulletin board is of exceptional value to the librarian.[18] The bulletin board is a teaching device that can be used in any school situation without regard to cost. The traditional bulletin board, changed infrequently, unattractively arranged, filled with ill-chosen and unrelated items, is far removed from the type of teaching aid described by Stolper, who used it to great advantage.[19]

Sources of material are many and varied. The library's picture collection and information files are unfailing reservoirs of timely, interesting material that may easily escape notice unless publicly displayed. Current newspapers yield much that may be used for bulletin boards only, never being of sufficient value to reach vertical-file folders. Pictures from the illustrated supplements of periodicals and newspapers, picture postcards, and posters are useful.

Effective utilization of pupil assistance should make the bulletin board easier to care for as well as engage students in a worth-while contribution to the whole school. Student committees might be used to prepare headings for exhibits, to arrange space divisions, to change displays according to a definite routine. Bulletin boards should be changed every week or on stated dates, and no material should remain on display for too extended a period.

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[18] Martha Woodbury, *Bulletin Boards in the Elementary School.* Aids for Elementary-School Teachers, I. University of Iowa Extension Bulletin, Vol. CCLVIII (December 15, 1930).

[19] B. J. R. Stolper, *The Bulletin Board as a Teaching Device*, p. 4. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940.

The most effective bulletin board is one most closely connected with school activities. The librarian should make use of her contacts with teachers for bulletin-board improvement. Notes sent to teachers concerning bulletin-board displays or announcements on the principal's daily bulletin will enlist the teacher's interest

The bulletin board is an excellent means for enriching the school program. The following questions suggested by Brumbaugh serve as criteria for judging a bulletin board:

1. Does it suggest things for children to do? To read?
2. Does it supplement experience?
3. Does it clarify meanings?
4. Does it provide comparisons with other information?
5. Does it develop initiative?
6. Does it develop critical thinking?
7. Does it promote mental or physical health? Creative expression? Desirable social relationships?[20]

8. Maps

The chief advantage of visual materials in the school program is that they enable teachers to make real and concrete, through illustrations, the abstract and the unreal. The interpretation of current events today, more than ever, is dependent upon the teacher's success in using maps and globes to fix place relationships in pupils' minds. Television news broadcasts use the teacher's technique with pointer and map. It is impossible to listen to a radio news broadcast, to read a newspaper or a periodical, or to discuss world happenings without constant recourse to maps. Maps are diagrams, lines, and names, in themselves meaningless, but they evoke, where properly understood, concepts of extreme importance. The librarian should encourage teachers, therefore, to use a wide variety of maps, beginning in the lower grades with pictorial and decorative maps or those constructed on sand tables.

The librarian charged with the responsibility of audio-visual education has a duty in assisting in the proper use of maps by teachers just as she assumes a share of this work in the direction of the use of other audio-visual materials. A map requires preparation by the teacher for class use; teachers must, first of all, especially with lower-grade children, emphasize the need for maps and emphasize the kind of information children

[20] Florence Brumbaugh, "Do You Really Use Your Bulletin Board?" *Instructor* XLVIII (January, 1939), 4.

may expect from their use. The map that gives information about rainfall, population, temperature, political conditions, and history will be explained and fitted to the type of question the student needs to have answered. Teachers in their use of maps and globes should be cautioned to allow plenty of time for the pupil's examination of each new map; the learning situation should be repeated several times. If the teacher does not give information on map-reading, the librarian should include this in her library instruction. Underlying all instruction with maps is the gradual introduction of the language of map symbols, and this becomes a fund of information gradually acquired through the years. The symbols of the map become useful for the introduction of other audio-visual aids. They lead naturally to the use of motion pictures, still films, slides, pictures, and the many other adjuncts to learning which a modern system of education provides.

Map collections consist of three main divisions, according to form: the globe, the relief map, and the flat map. The globe should be included in every collection since it is so vital to teaching important concepts which may not be secured from other representations where distortions must inevitably occur. The relief map, which shows inequalities in the earth's surface, is an important teaching tool. The flat map may be prepared for a variety of uses of which the following are typical:

Polar projection map
Political map
Political–physical map
Population map
Economic map
Rainfall or precipitation map
Temperature map
Soil and vegetation maps
Road map
Specialized maps: history—military invasions, campaigns, and conquests, exploring expeditions, territorial accessions and expansions; literature and music; health—showing the prevalence of disease, frequency of accidents; language; religious.[21]

Further, on the basis of presentation and use, maps may be classified as follows: outline maps, completed wall maps, "projected" or enlarged

[21] H. C. McKown and A. B. Roberts, *Audio-visual Aids to Instruction*, p. 76. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940.

maps (opaque or lantern-slide projection may be used for this purpose), sand-table maps, electrically illuminated maps used to emphasize desired elements, pictorial statistics maps, and decorative maps. Rapidly changing geographical boundaries have made such maps as the *News Map of the Week*[22] with its accompanying manual and the *Erasamark* map of special value in libraries and schools. The *Erasamark* map is desirable for classroom use in connection with the study of current events, which are moving so swiftly in the world today. The news spots of each day can be visualized on these markable surface maps.

The organization of a useful file of maps will involve the selection of materials on the basis of valid criteria, which will include the following items:

1. Accuracy
2. Projections
3. Size
4. Detail
5. Color
6. Execution (simple, direct, accurate)
7. Content
8. Adaptability (to age and grade level)[23]

All maps should be clearly labeled with titles or an accurate description, as well as their classification numbers. Special care will be necessary in the filing and storage of maps and globes. Sufficient space must be set aside for this purpose in special quarters, where stands, cabinets, cases, and equipment for hanging maps are available.

9. Radio

The introduction of the radio as a medium of instruction in the educational field is, of course, comparatively recent. The radio is now recognized as a significant influence in the development of youth.

In the last decade the amount of time devoted exclusively to educational radio programs has increased widely. This may be traced to the fact that teachers have come to realize the place of such an authentic and first-hand instrument for learning.

Just as the motion picture, once distrusted by some members of the teaching body, was later utilized to great advantage, so the use of the

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[22] News Map of the Week, Inc., 1512 N. Orleans Street, Chicago, Illinois.

[23] Hoban and Zisman, *op. cit.*, pp. 228–30.

radio was at first limited to a few bold experimenters. One of the earliest reactions of educators to the use of the radio was evidenced in the establishment of radio stations by schools and colleges. Present trends in this field of broadcasting indicate four major developments as outlined by Atkinson in his study, *Education by Radio:*

1. Co-operative broadcasting is to become an increasingly important factor in education by radio within the next few years.
2. City school systems are assuming the leadership in building broadcasting organizations to provide programs intended to supplement classroom work.
3. Mechanical perfecting and price lowering of the electrical transcription process are making possible enlarged opportunities for educational broadcasting.
4. Present policies of the Federal Communications Commission are making it expedient for the commercial broadcasting companies to favor the growth of educational broadcasting.[24]

Most librarians and teachers are concerned with plans for encouraging full utilization of the radio as an instructive agent, the development of appreciation and discrimination among the student body, and the selection and use of radio equipment. The librarian will be concerned with making a vital contribution to each of the objectives listed above in her library program. To the extent that the offerings of radio are correlated and integrated with the whole school situation, a fair measure of the success of using radio may be secured. As teaching devices that offer varied and enriched methods, radio programs have much in common with other audio-visual aids. No teacher should assume that a radio program is a substitute for a recitation; it is indeed an introduction, a force to mold pupil opinion, or an effective summarizing tool. It must be not isolated from the usual classroom techniques. The librarian can assist by providing accurate and up-to-date information on the use of radio in education, by preparing announcements of radio programs of educational significance, and in other ways.

A useful source of radio information is the bulletin of the Association for Education by Radio.[25] The formation of the association in 1941 represented an important step forward in establishing co-operation between radio agencies and schools. Developing a means of establishing adequate communication among persons in education by radio is one of its chief purposes.

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[24] Carroll Atkinson, *Education by Radio in American Schools*, p. 126. Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1938.

[25] Published by the Association, 228 N. LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois.

Heaps[26] lists a number of functions which librarians are now performing or may eventually perform in the school radio program: preparing publicity, organizing information centers, maintaining transcription record collections, gathering radio scripts, and serving as a broadcasting or listening center.

Each of these functions will be closely related to activities of individual teachers in the school organization. Adequate preparation of student listening groups requires definite instruction which may be offered by subject-matter teachers in the regular English or history classes or in a class devoted to radio appreciation only. Outlines containing suggestions for classes in radio study may often be prepared directly in the schools concerned. Typical of this new instructional material is the manual, *A Course of Study in Radio Appreciation*, prepared by Sterner.[27] Librarians have the responsibility for relating such courses to book material. The opportunity which this offers for vitalizing the use of library resources should not be neglected.

Information about forthcoming broadcasts is available to the librarian in many forms. The daily as well as the weekly issues of the newspaper should be scanned for radio programs, and information may also be gathered from the broadcasting companies themselves. This will enable her to provide teachers with attractive listings of present and future programs, to offer study and enrichment suggestions, and to inform the school personnel of significant trends in radio activities.

A sampling of the extent and variety of programs will reveal several well-established broadcasts such as "Americans at Work," a part of the "School of the Air of the Americas," which provides material for educational guidance lessons, or "Between the Book Ends," a program designed to extend a student's interest in literature. The well-known program, "Great Plays," provides an acquaintance with much that is stimulating in drama, past and present. "America's Town Meeting of the Air" or "The People's Platform" will serve to enhance almost any discussion in social studies at various levels of the educational program. There are so many opportunities presented for listening to good music that it is scarcely necessary to mention a particular program, and so it is with the

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[26] W. A. Heaps, "Ears and the Library," *Wilson Library Bulletin*, XV (September, 1940), 19–23.

[27] A. P. Sterner, *A Course of Study in Radio Appreciation*. New York: Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc., 1941.

entire school curriculum. If we examine the calendars of radio programs, we discover many sources of vital and significant educational experiences.

By the very nature of the task of collecting information about radio broadcasts, the librarian is immediately compelled to consider principles for selecting worth-while programs. The National Committee on Education by Radio has suggested the following questions as being especially pertinent to the selector of radio programs for educational institutions:

1. Does the program have unity, that is, do the parts contribute to a central idea, which, in turn, is a logical sector of a program series?
2. Is the subject matter selected educationally important?
3. Will the program effectively induce a considerable proportion of listeners to explore the subject more completely through reading, discussion, or other self-educative activity?
4. Is there a summary at the close to fix in the listener's mind the major points brought out by the script?
5. Is the selection and presentation of the material such that the voluntary interest of the students will be aroused?[28]

At the request of the Federal Radio Education Committee, the research staff of the Evaluation of School Broadcasts at Ohio State University has published a tentative set of criteria for children's radio programs.[29] These criteria are based upon what children's programs should be from the point of view of ethics, personality development, and showmanship.

Having collected the available data on educational broadcasts, and having made a selection based on generally accepted principles governing the selection of good teaching materials, the librarian must disseminate this information among faculty members. Depending upon the size of the school and other factors, the librarian charts her course with the main objective that of reaching each instructor on the staff. Featuring the information on a specially prepared bulletin provides one of the best ways of achieving this goal. This bulletin should appear regularly, should be arranged attractively, and should contain only the necessary information. The actual appearance of the bulletin will best be decided by each worker in the field, but if some such source of information is established, the use of the radio in the classroom and for out-of-school listening will be in-

[28] National Committee on Education by Radio, *Education by Radio*, VII (April, 1937), 13–16.

[29] Howard Rowland *et al.*, *Criteria for Children's Radio Programs*. Washington: Federal Radio Education Committee, 1942.

creased. The preparation of this channel of information should not, of course, end the librarian's stimulation of this teaching aid; there will be the need very frequently for a more direct approach to some teachers. Occasional notes about especially helpful programs or a word-of-mouth message may be needed to encourage the use of the radio by some teachers.

The library should serve as a source of information about other phases of the school's program in the use of the radio. Much material is available from the Script Exchange of the Office of Education, Washington, D.C. The librarian who provides interested school groups with worthwhile scripts will be encouraging the increasingly popular device of school-prepared broadcasts. Schools are using radio workshops to develop habits of discrimination and judgment concerning the sort of programs broadcast over the air and to develop poise and confidence of students before the microphone. The effectiveness of the school broadcast as a means of developing intelligent radio-program listeners has reached such a proportion today that hundreds of these broadcasts are presented over commercial networks as well as those of local school systems or universities. A discussion of what constitutes a good school broadcast has been prepared by Seeley Reid.[30] One of the chief contributions of the librarian to this phase of the program will be the excellence of the printed materials which have been collected and which can be presented to groups of teachers and students who are experimenting with this procedure.

While it is outside the scope of this discussion to consider fully the problem of selection of radio equipment for school use in its technical aspects, there is a need for pointing out that accurate and reliable sources of information concerning this problem are available; mention of some of the significant studies in this field are made in the bibliography of sources at the end of this chapter.

Rather than purchase a radio for the individual classroom, some schools have provided central receiving sets which in turn broadcast radio programs to every classroom in the building. This has the disadvantage of limiting rather severely the fullest use of the radio by each teacher in the building, since obviously only one program may be received at a time. The most desirable solution to the problem seems to be the provision of a receiving set for each classroom in the school building.

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[30] Ohio State University, Bureau of Educational Research, *News Letter*, Vol. VII, No. 4, January, 1942.

The expense involved will usually prevent this goal from being reached; therefore some compromise will be necessary. When the library serves as the center of audio-visual materials, school-owned radios may be distributed to teachers on the same administrative basis as that which governs the distribution of other audio-visual equipment. Student assistance corps, such as projection staffs or service clubs, may aid the librarian in sending radios to the places where they are needed and in seeing that they are returned to their storage place.

The librarian who is attempting to stimulate the use of the radio in the school audio-visual program will need to be an alert listener to radio offerings so that her assistance to students and teachers will be more reliable. Round-table discussions, musical programs, plays, lectures, news broadcasts, and the infinite variety of radio's offerings to general education will help her select suitable programs for the instructional staff.

10. Television

As television sets have become increasingly available to the public, broadcasting companies have sponsored programs that may be utilized as teaching aids. This means of disseminating "live" information by a combination of audio-visual techniques to a widespread and disparate audience is unique. At the present time (March 1942), these programs are few, as each station broadcasts only about fifteen hours per week, the amount of time required to maintain its federal license. The programs are now limited, but greater variety of subject matter and diversity of techniques of transmission will follow as the industry expands. While the technical features of television broadcasting have made enormous strides, methods of programing are just being evolved. New techniques of broadcasting other than those used by radio and motion pictures will have to be developed to be consistent with the instrument. The introduction of color television, which has been demonstrated experimentally, will again involve new methods of transmission. A number of industrial organizations have maintained extensive laboratories and experimental broadcasting stations to enable them to make this new industry available to the public-at-large with an ever increasing degree of perfection.

The educational possibilities of television broadcasting are far more significant than those already realized by radio. That the combination of visual and audio transmission enhances the retentive capacities of the human mind is well known. Classroom teachers, just as they have utilized

radio as a teaching device, will certainly wish to include the advantages of television broadcasts.

Although the current programs are still in an experimental stage, they are being used to transmit up-to-date and vital information. The news broadcasts, graphically illustrated by maps and diagrams, and the weekly broadcast of the "Town Hall Meeting" to those in the New York area, would make invaluable contributions to classes in history and current events. Geography classes would find the rebroadcasts of film travelogues profitable. Special programs have been offered for children of the elementary grades. Among programs already transmitted have been dramatic and musical performances by well-known artists. The implications of such broadcasts for English and music classes are broad.

As a means of broadcasting information about our current war program and national defense, television has already shown that it has a role to play. The programs of the American Red Cross and the Office of Civilian Defense are excellent examples of the possibilities of television in mass instruction. The American Red Cross has conducted a course in first aid by means of television. Such graphic demonstrations of first-aid techniques can be readily used by teachers and classes in health education. The Office of Civilian Defense is conducting a course for air-raid wardens. These programs are being used widely in New York City to assist in training their personnel. For the general public, both organizations have been broadcasting information about their volunteer services concerned with air-raid defense, airplane spotting, social welfare, first-aid activities, nutrition and canteen work, and blood plasma storage.

Unquestionably, as more and more television sets are produced, this method of audio-visual transmission will be a welcome teaching aid in the classroom. It would be well for librarians to watch the advances made in television broadcasting so that they may be in a position to give adequate and suitable information.

11. The Phonograph

The educational possibilities of this auditory aid first became apparent to instructors of music. The music department was therefore the first to utilize this valuable adjunct to teaching, and in some schools the only phonograph or records available even today are those selected and used by the music teacher. A centralized department of audio-visual service in any individual school or system, however, will be in a position to dispel this restricted conception of the use of the phonograph. The librarian

who organizes such a department can serve in selecting and making available a great variety in records. Recordings of poems and other selections from literature as illustrated by the "Mercury Shakespeare," records which are used for drill in foreign-language study, records which dramatize current events, such as the Elmer Davis recordings, "The Sound of History," important speeches, dramatic presentations of history both modern and ancient, and many others will enable the librarian to provide nearly every school curricular offering with appropriate material.

Recordings of radio programs widen the usefulness of the whole field of radio education because, with such recordings represented in the central collection of auditory aids, the teacher is able to secure an effective radio dramatization or other type of broadcast for use at any stage of the school program; reliance no longer must be placed solely on the hour of the original broadcast. Through the use of recordings of radio programs the teacher is enabled also to reproduce the material presented as many times as he sees fit. This type of recording, generally spoken of as the transcription recording, takes the form of a 16-inch disk, recorded at 33⅓ revolutions per minute; this record will play for about 15 minutes on each side, whereas the standard phonograph record playing at 78 r.p.m. requires about 10 minutes of playing time for a 12-inch record. Therefore, the transcription recording requires fewer disks and less handling of records in the presentation of a program. Sources of transcription records should be noted and reported to faculty members by the librarian.

In addition to the purchase of records and transcriptions from the usual sources, a library of materials will be acquired through school-made records where the type of equipment for such production has been purchased. These records may be made of broadcasts received over the radio or they may be records of school activities and projects. Other uses of school-recording machines for purposes of speech improvement, dramatics, and music classes will be of interest to the librarian.

The library story-hour may be greatly enriched by the use of recorded stories and appropriate musical selections. A story once told and recorded is available for many groups of children at various times. All librarians are not story-tellers, and the school system or public library system which has at least one trained story-teller will find it to be a great advantage to record her stories and use them throughout the city. The New York Public Library, under the direction of Mary Gould Davis, has done some experimental work along these lines. This also puts the librarian on the producing end of radio in education, and, with the introduction of drama

as well as narration in a story-hour program, she has a chance actually to use all of the resources of the workshop as well as to create the script.

Studies have been made to determine standards which should be used as a guide in the selection of phonographs for school and classroom use. One of the most helpful is that of the Committee on Scientific Aids to Learning,[31] which reports a detailed and careful analysis of the determining factors. Because sound-engineering techniques are being developed so rapidly, the librarian should be acquainted with these studies and should seek the advice of reliable dealers in her community before purchasing this equipment for her school. Each school situation will determine the extent and variety of phonographs and recording equipment which may be purchased, but certainly, in order to make available the variety of materials which may be used, each school should be provided with a two-speed record-player phonograph so that both the standard records and the $33\frac{1}{3}$ r.p.m. records may be utilized.

To insure full use of a library of records, the same means of stimulating their use by teachers must be applied as has already been suggested in the section on the use of the radio and the motion picture. Listing these records in bibliographies of supplementary material, advertising them by mention in bulletins or notes, and including them in selected materials for classroom use will help to achieve these goals.

Phonograph records should be cataloged in conformity with accepted library procedure. It is pertinent, however, to point out that records and related objects should be cataloged from the very beginning. Too frequently a librarian may consider that this collection is to remain a small one; consequently, no effort is made to incorporate these materials in the library catalog or shelf list. Records should be classified, cataloged, and carefully stored in easily accessible parts of the library so that they are as fully available as other library material.

Circulating records and phonographs will conform to the library's accepted techniques. The phonograph should be scheduled some time in advance of actual use, and the librarian will be able to prepare reservation blanks for this purpose. Records will be equipped with charging cards and date slips so that they may be borrowed through the regular channels.

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[31] National Research Council, Committee on Scientific Aids to Learning, *Broadcast Receivers and Phonographs for Classroom Use.* New York: The Committee (41 W. Forty-Second Street), 1939.

12. The School Museum and the School Journey

Modern educational programs have emphasized direct or perceptual experience as the basis of all knowledge. Without the foundation of visual-sensory experiences a student has no meanings with which to associate events and objects. The variety of perceptual experiences is reflected in the student's reactions to all related learning situations, including his ability to learn from the textbook and other supplementary instructional materials. The vicarious experiences which constitute the majority of those acquired in the average school curriculum become more meaningful when the student brings to them a background of ideas gained directly from associations with objects of all types. The school museum can make the necessary provision for supplying the materials for many of the direct learning experiences which should be incorporated in the curriculum. An object or a specimen from a museum collection often supplies the teacher with the only means of direct contacts for learning in the classroom.

The teacher and the librarian have a real responsibility for providing experiences where learning from direct contact with objects and specimens is desired. Such activities will of necessity be closely related to the program of the school, and the librarian will be guided in her selection of museum materials chiefly by this criterion. That school museums need careful supervision in the light of the aims of the individual school is evident from the wealth and infinite variety of materials which a museum might collect.

It is clearly evident that in the selection of materials for a school museum only the most valuable items in relation to the needs of the teaching program should be included. Evaluation of potential museum objects should include a consideration of the completeness with which the item represents the subject. This is one of the hazards of seeking free materials from commercial organizations chiefly interested in the "educational" tools they are promoting. Specimens, charts, and models may be quite inadequate. The librarian should seek advice from competent workers in nearby museums before selecting materials for the school museums. How accurate is the model, specimen, or object? This criterion is closely related to completeness. The opinion of the teaching staff—the science or geography instructor—or a staff member in a public or private museum should frequently be sought. In building a working collection that can be used by the school wisely, the librarian should proceed slowly; she should avoid collecting curios that have no relation to curriculum offerings; she should plan for steady growth and should discard liberally.

One of the chief advantages of having the museum's development in the hands of the librarian lies in her ability to correlate the materials of the museum with the other enrichment material of the school. Bringing to the museum a training that has dealt extensively with criteria for selection of materials of instruction, the school librarian is constantly on the alert to secure valuable supplementary tools. The librarian is a co-ordinator of supplementary materials by the very nature of her position, as well as by the fact that she owes special allegiance to no special department or field of instruction in the school. Impartiality in selection is guaranteed by having the librarian assemble and distribute these materials.

One of the chief duties of the librarian as co-ordinator of curriculum enrichment materials is concerned with the decisions she must make in selecting appropriate audio-visual aids in response to requests from subject-matter teachers. The unending variety of audio-visual aids—motion pictures, radio programs, museum objects, and all the other devices which may be listed—must be balanced. For instance, a request from a teacher for museum specimens for a class studying textiles may result in the librarian calling to the teacher's attention the more effective teaching aid in the form of a motion picture, a set of slides, or a school journey to a local textile factory or to a local museum.

The field trip is a method of providing first-hand observation that is quite closely related to the type of educational experience involved in using museum materials, and the school librarian has a definite responsibility for encouraging this activity. Apart from the practical angle which enables a librarian to enrich the audio-visual program without actually purchasing, cataloging, and housing many museum objects, it provides pupils with many satisfying educational opportunities.

A field trip which may take the student into a nearby manufacturing plant, store, or airport will often provide experiences of a great variety, surpassing those which may result from the classroom use of museum objects. The school excursion as a visual-sensory aid in teaching should be stressed. The library may have an important part in the preparation of teacher and class for this type of field trip or school journey. In the report of the Survey of the Public Schools of Newark, New Jersey, by Teachers College, Columbia University, the suggestion is offered that a community-resources file be maintained in the library.

The school museum should be enriched whenever possible by borrowing from local or state museums. The librarian will naturally be well in-

formed about the resources of these by personal visits whenever possible as well as by careful study of catalogs and bulletins published by the institutions themselves. The borrowing privilege of these museums permits the school collection to reflect chiefly the constant needs of the curriculum with special or seasonal demands satisfied by adequate loans from state, local, or private museums. Private collections in the community offer similar possibilities.

Donations from individuals in the community also provide a fruitful source of acquisition for the museum. Other sources of materials include industrial and commercial establishments, but their exhibits should be scrutinized carefully before being added to the collection. The librarian and teacher should co-operate in enlisting the aid of children for gathering specimens and objects—wood, coal, fruits, plants, and vegetables, many of which may be gathered locally.

The librarian's organization of a school museum must be simple, and she will certainly not endeavor to simulate the detailed procedures of accessioning, processing, and cataloging that professional museum workers employ in their specialized institutions. Classifying and cataloging materials will need to follow the routines prescribed by the school librarian for other materials. Mounting and labeling specimens, models, and objects will be done most successfully after the librarian has visited a large museum and consulted with trained workers who will help her to adapt such methods to the school's needs.

School museums are greatly enhanced in educational significance when sufficient and attractive display space has been provided. Rooms to be used as exhibit centers require adequate supervision. The materials themselves should be readily movable so that they can be taken to various parts of the school. Provision for space should take into account the need for class visits, and therefore a central location is desirable.

III. Newspapers, Periodicals, and Pamphlets

In school libraries, newspapers, magazines, and pamphlets have a definite place, serving both as curricular and as recreational material. It is almost a necessity to have in a library one newspaper of recognized standards in news coverage, authenticity, and journalistic style. It is sometimes advisable to have a local paper available for community news as well. Units based on newspaper-reading are being introduced into the English and social-science courses of study in order to adjust the curriculum to contemporary needs. Several such units are presented in a report

of a committee of the National Council of Teachers of English.[32] The news items of the local paper are an important source of material for community study, vocational guidance, and records of school activities. It is profitable for the librarian to examine the newspapers, as they are invaluable sources of information on housing, consumer education, city-planning, public utilities, crime, fine arts, nutrition, homemaking, and developments in science. The book reviews and biographical accounts of famous personalities, as well as the coverage of straight news, provide additional information of value.

After the current papers have been used in the library, they may be filed intact for a few days. However, there is a great deal of material in a newspaper which is of no value to the library; therefore, newspapers may well be clipped, and each item of permanent interest mounted, assigned a subject heading, and placed in the vertical file with other nonbook materials on the same subject.

As is true of newspapers, magazines and pamphlets contain timely information which often cannot be found in book form for several months after the demand for it has been created. However, this material is frequently more authentic and is usually better written and more detailed than newspaper accounts.

The librarian should be discriminating in her selection of periodicals, completely revising the subscription list each year after a re-examination of the files for significant changes which may have taken place during the year. A change of editor or publisher may alter the entire tone and viewpoint of a publication, especially of a periodical dealing with current affairs and controversial subjects. In making up a periodical subscription list the librarian should consider the curriculum, the type and location of her school, the people who use the library, and the budget of the library; and, for particular periodicals, the publisher, the editor, the contributors, the reading level, the political viewpoint, the physical makeup, and whether it is indexed in any of the periodical indexes which the library receives.

Magazine articles have been made comparatively easy to find by the publication of such indexes as *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* (the *Abridged Readers' Guide* indexes twenty-five of the most-read periodicals

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[32] National Council of Teachers of English (Angela Broening *et al.*), *Conducting Experiences in English*, pp. 77–79. English Monographs No. 8. New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1939.

and is therefore most valuable for small school libraries); the *Art Index*, indexing fine arts periodicals and museum publications; the *Education Index*, indexing teachers' professional literature; the *Industrial Arts Index*, a guide to books, pamphlets, and periodicals on engineering, trade, and business; and the *Book Review Digest*, providing evaluating excerpts and sources of book reviews. It is advisable for the librarian to look through all periodicals before they leave her hands, as she may note material of value to individual teachers.

The demands for and use of current magazines will determine whether they are better suited for circulation or for reference. Magazines should be kept on file in the library, or in a special room near it, for from one to three years. The length of time is conditioned by use and space, as well as by their availability in the local public library.

Pamphlets, too, should be carefully selected. They are available in great quantity and variety, and the librarian is usually faced with the problem of what to order rather than where and how to secure them. Such agencies as banking associations, insurance companies, religious associations, industrial organizations, educational and health foundations, travel bureaus, chambers of commerce, and radio networks are fruitful sources for free and inexpensive pamphlets; in addition, the *Vertical File Service* should be regularly checked. A helpful list of pamphlet sources has been compiled by Norma O. Ireland.[33]

Pamphlets may be classified and filed by subject. The files should be labeled and may be placed on regular bookshelves in a special section of the library or with the books on the same subject. If shelf space is limited, pamphlets may be filed in a vertical file, together with clippings, bibliographies, and other ephemeral materials. New pamphlets should be classified and put into circulation at once, without holding them for elaborate cataloging, since one of the greatest values of pamphlet material is timeliness.

IV. Conclusions

The role of the librarian as the co-ordinator of curriculum-enrichment materials has been emphasized throughout this chapter. Relating in-

[33] N. O. Ireland, "Pamphlet Sources for the School Librarian," *Wilson Library Bulletin*, XV (December, 1940), 330–32; XV (January, 1941), 430–31. For an excellent description of government documents and their sources, see Louis Shores, *Basic Reference Books*, pp. 187–204. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939.

structional materials to all school activities requires the direction of a librarian who is capable of administering services necessary to the effective distribution and use of motion pictures, radios, phonographs, slides, maps, charts, periodicals, pamphlets, and other nonbook aids to learning. Although the training, imagination, and resourcefulness of the librarian are of prime importance, the total program requires proper and adequate housing and equipment, and these can be provided for only by the forward-looking administrator. Handicapped by lack of space, by insufficient funds, and poor physical equipment, no librarian can carry the full responsibility for modern school-library service. Conference rooms are indicated in the expanding program so that individual and group projects may be carried on without detriment to regular book use in library reference- and reading-rooms. School programs using mechanically projected visual aids involve special shelving for film storage, dark rooms for projection, and special cabinets and cases for storage of machines and projectors. The phonograph records should be filed in special racks, and space is needed for storing record players. "Listening" rooms for radios and phonographs are also desirable. A school museum must be properly housed in ample quarters with attractive facilities for exhibits. In fact, each phase of the library's activity should receive proper recognition in the architect's plans for new or remodeled school buildings.

In describing the librarian of the future, Rush warns that "there are grave implications in trying to follow instructions on driving an ox-cart while attempting to fly a plane."[34] While it is true that stress should properly be placed on plans for redesigning the physical equipment of libraries to serve as dynamic agencies in the modern school, it is equally vital that the librarian's thinking and acting be remolded. Library service which is broad enough to include all aids to learning requires workers whose active role in the school rises above mere custodianship of books to the rank of other heads of departments. The educational patterns of today exact from teachers a degree of skill never required in the days of the single textbook and formalized classroom procedures. The general expansion and development of twentieth-century schools likewise require library programs initiated by librarians whose basic philosophy is no less progressive.

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[34] C. E. Rush, "Librarian of the Future," in E. M. Danton's *Library of Tomorrow*, p. 97. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939.

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SECTION V

MACHINERY FOR IMPLEMENTING LIBRARY SERVICES

CHAPTER XII

EXTERNAL CONTROL AND ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES

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RUTH M. ERSTED, RALPH M. DUNBAR
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I

GOVERNMENTAL FORCES CONTROLLING SCHOOL-LIBRARY SERVICE

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Our public schools, as agencies of the state, are usually administered by local boards of education, but are controlled to some degree by the state.[1] The school library, a unit within the school, is subject to the same control—that of the local board of education and, to some degree, of the state department of education. The board of education sometimes delegates part of its authority over the school library to another tax-supported educational institution in the community—the public library.

The one generalization usually made about the external control of school libraries is this: a given school library is controlled in one of three ways: (1) by the board of education, (2) by the public library, or (3) by both the board of education and the public library co-operatively.[2] This

[1] Nelson B. Henry and Jerome G. Kerwin, *Schools and City Government.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938.

[2] Recent publications which have contained discussions of school-library control are: (1) Douglas Waples and Leon Carnovsky, *Libraries and Readers in the State of New York.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939; (2) H. L. Cecil and W. A. Heaps, *School Library Service in the United States.* New York: H. W. Wilson, 1940;

generalization is easy to make but difficult to apply. Inasmuch as ultimate control resides in the board of education, it is not easy to say of the libraries of a given city, or even of one school, that they are controlled by the public library rather than by both the schools and the public library working together.

I. Control by Board of Education

The first method of control, that by the board of education alone, is the one clear-cut method. However, the details of the working out of this control are obscured, often indefinite, and difficult to discover. A senior high school library controlled by the board of education alone may be supervised by the school principal alone, by the supervisor of English, by a librarian-co-ordinator, by a school-library supervisor, by the administrator in charge of high schools, or by some other central-office administrator. Supervision often includes some aspects of line authority, although more often line authority is exercised by the principal alone. Even where the libraries of the junior high and elementary schools in the same city are also controlled by the board of education, different channels for both supervision and control may be established at both the elementary and the junior high school levels.

II. Control by the Public Library

When the board of education delegates complete or partial control over its school libraries to the public library, the control is placed in the hands of the public library board. The library board selects the chief librarian who, in turn, selects her staff. Control over school libraries is exercised directly by various members of the library's staff—in some cities by the chief librarian herself, in other cities by the chief of the children's department, or, most often in larger cities, by the chief of the schools department.

The public library which controls school libraries contributes to their financial support also. The public library's contribution varies from almost complete support in one large city (excluding only room and jani-

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and (3) Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association, *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together in School Library Service*. Washington: National Education Association, 1941; (4) Howard W. Brown, "A Study of Methods and Practices in Supplying Library Service to Elementary Schools in the United States." Doctor's dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 1941 (private printing).

torial service) to much less proportionate support in other cities. The person who exercises direct control over the school libraries may receive her salary from the public library, or part from the public library and part from the schools. Individual school librarians may be paid by the schools, or by the public library, or by both schools and library. The institution, however, which pays the salaries is likely both to select and to appoint the librarians, but this is not always so.[3] The books in the school libraries are owned by the institution which pays for them, not necessarily by the one which processes them or supervises their use.

The "control" may vary from complete line authority to staff supervision. Also, evidence of the relationship between the schools and the public library may be an official contract between the board of education and the library board signed by both contracting parties, or it may be the loosest sort of understanding, the only substantiation being the working relationship between the two institutions.

III. Variations in Control of School-Library Service

Uniformity in method of school-library control is not always found within a community. Within a city different arrangements for direct administrative control of the school libraries may be made at each of the three school levels—elementary, junior high, and senior high. For example, the board of education may retain control over elementary-school libraries and may delegate to the public library a large part of the control of the senior high school libraries, as in Chicago. Or the board of education may retain control over the senior high school libraries but may delegate to the public library a share in the control of the libraries of the elementary and the junior high schools, as in Seattle. Or the schools may even retain direct control over some of the senior high school libraries, and, at the same time, enter into various arrangements with the public library for the control of other of the senior high school libraries, as in Indianapolis.

IV. Extent to Which Each Type of Control Prevails

The extent to which the three methods of control of the school library prevail in the United States is shown in two recent publications. The *Biennial Survey of Education* indicates that 96.5 per cent of all school libraries reporting were controlled by the school board; 1 per cent by the

[3] E.g., in Chicago.

public library board; 2.3 per cent by a co-operative arrangement between the two boards; and the final 0.2 per cent by "other boards."[4] Both public library administration and co-operative administration are more likely to occur in city school systems. The National Education Association survey presents slightly different results because it used different classifications for its data.[5] This survey, too, shows public library administration and co-operative administration more likely to exist in larger cities. However, data presented in the latter survey show responsibility for giving service rather than for exercising administrative control.

V. Board of Education versus Public Library Control

In view of the proportion of school libraries controlled by boards of education (96.5 per cent), present-day restatements of arguments for public library or co-operative control may be surprising.[6] The question of control is, apparently, an open one. Perhaps the final and decisive argument will be the financial one—which institution can pay the bills for the school library. Control in the long run is likely to accompany financial support. Present-day school libraries are too expensive to be supported by most public libraries, if, at the same time, the general adult public is to be served adequately.[7]

The question of who *should* administer school libraries, whether the schools, the public library, or both, leads ultimately to a consideration of the governmental structure of the two institutions involved—the schools

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[4] E. M. Foster and Edith A. Lathrop, "Statistics of Public-School Libraries, 1934–1935," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1934–36*, pp. 20–21. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1937. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

[5] *Certain Aspects of School Library Administration*, Educational Research Service, Circular No. 6. Washington: American Association of School Administrators and Research Division of the National Education Association, 1939.

[6] Discussion and tabulation of arguments for co-operative control may be found in Cecil and Heaps, *op. cit.*, pp. 188–95. Similar discussion and arguments for and against board-of-education control also are given, *ibid.*, pp. 195–202. A brief discussion of arguments for each type of control is presented by C. B. Joeckel and Leon Carnovsky in *A Metropolitan Library in Action*, pp. 330–32. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940.

[7] For example, in one of our large cities the school libraries' book fund is larger than that of the public library.

and the public library.[8] The question leads further to a weighing of what should be the connection between the governing bodies of the two institutions. Often it is urged that school libraries be taken over by the public library and made to serve as general branch libraries open to the adult public as well as to the school population. It is even advocated that a single board should govern both institutions—library and schools; or that at least some fundamental governmental relationship between the two institutions should be established.[9] However, the report of the Educational Policies Commission points out that there are some obstacles to board-of-education control of public libraries. For instance:

> Perhaps the strongest argument raised against placing public libraries under boards of education is that these boards, as at present constituted, have an educational viewpoint which fails to encompass the full implications of the library as an educational institution. Many boards do not yet recognize the contribution of libraries to both formal and informal education and to the wise use of leisure time. Under this handicap the libraries suffer, it is said, from a lack of that consideration which is consistent with their importance. Likewise, it is feared that people may associate the formal atmosphere of the traditional classroom with libraries controlled by school authorities and consequently hesitate to take advantage of the service. It is further asserted that under this form of control the libraries lack representation before the public such as they enjoy under a separate board. The argument that service to the public would become subordinate to the school service can sometimes be substantiated although by no means is that situation universal. The whole configuration of attitudes toward the matter could be changed by a broader viewpoint on the part of boards of education.[10]

In a few cities school libraries are open to the general public, and in a few other cities a joint authority does administer both the public library and the public schools. It has also been suggested that school libraries undertake all library work with children and leave the public library free to work with adults. This suggestion was not made in an effort to solve the problem of school-library administration but for the purpose of pre-

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[8] C. B. Joeckel, *The Government of the American Public Library*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938.

[9] The Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee*, p. 139. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938; Educational Policies Commission, *Social Services and the Schools*, pp. 30 ff. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1939.

[10] Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, pp. 33–34.

senting a clear-cut division of service between the schools and the library.[11]

On the basis of theory, it looks as if the schools should administer their own libraries. On the basis of experience, it must be admitted that the public library which understands and endorses the best objectives of school-library service can build up an effective school-library system. Comparable financial statistics from different types of school-library systems are almost nonexistent. The best guess seems to be that the most economical system is the one in the hands of the best administrators, and that, given equally good administrators, the same quality of service is likely to cost as much under one system of control as under another.[12]

Finally, it should be pointed out that control as here discussed is distinct from service. The public library may offer much service to school libraries while the acknowledged and working control of the school libraries may still reside in the schools. The trend seems to be for control, even in our larger cities, to be exercised immediately by the schools. This does not mean that the trend is for public libraries to cease giving service to the public schools.

II

CO-OPERATIVE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SCHOOLS AND PUBLIC LIBRARIES

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Whatever the legal and formal arrangements may be for the provision and control of school libraries, the need and the opportunity exist for the schools and the public library to co-operate in improving school-library

[11] Nell Unger, "Shall We Surrender?" *Proceedings of the Institute on Library Work with Children*, pp. 132–39. Berkeley, California: School of Librarianship, University of California, 1939. See also C. B. Roden, "Standards for the Public Library Book Collection," *The Library of Tomorrow: A Symposium* (E. M. Danton, ed.), p. 93. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Cf. M. L. Batchelder, "School Library Service: 1970," *ibid.*, p. 139.

[12] See Cecil and Heaps, *op. cit.*, pp. 197–202.

service. The word "co-operation" as used by writers in this field often has been restricted to contractual or at least official arrangements whereby the public library has accepted a definite delegation of responsibility by the board of education for providing all or part of the school-library service, including sometimes the handling of school funds for library purposes. Less formal working relationships, however, called "voluntary co-operation" by Fargo,[13] are practiced more widely and are likewise important. The relationships discussed in this section include both the official and the voluntary forms of co-operation, with rather more emphasis on the second type.

Four topics are included: (1) why schools and public libraries should work together, (2) operational areas of co-operation, (3) functional areas of co-operation, and (4) improvement of working relationships. Since the third section of this chapter deals with the organization of school-library service in rural areas, the present section emphasizes co-operation in towns and cities.

I. Reasons for Co-operation between Schools and Public Libraries

Libraries and schools are both educational institutions and they both emphasize the use of books as a means to education. There was little overlapping of function in these institutions, however, so long as schools used only a few books, and those chiefly textbooks to be memorized or mastered in detail. During the past half-century, however, the old clear-cut lines of demarcation have blurred. The public library is serving children all the way down to the toddlers who can enjoy only picture books, and the schools are recognizing the need for all kinds of books and related materials as an integral part of children's learning experiences. The library and the schools are not doing the same things, but they are serving the same public in ways that are similar. For that reason each agency has an obligation to be aware of the program of the other.

Unless the school library and the public library work together enough to know what each is doing, two unfortunate results may be expected. One is that the two agencies will be duplicating service, each trying to do the same thing. The other danger, which is more serious, is that some important service that should be rendered will be overlooked. A more posi-

[13] Lucile F. Fargo, *The Library in the School*, pp. 503–5. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939.

tive reason for co-operation is the invaluable aid that each agency can give to the other, enabling each to do a better job than if the services of the other were disregarded.

II. Operational Areas of Co-operation

Attention is given here to the kinds of administrative relationships that usually are considered when contractual plans of joint school and library management of school libraries are adopted. These areas also provide opportunity for informal co-operation as well.

1. Finance

If the principle is accepted that the board of education should pay for school-library service, whatever the plan of administration through which this service is provided, then it would follow that the board of education should transfer funds to the public library whenever the latter carries a definite part of the school-library program. In some cities the school board makes an annual appropriation to the public library to pay in whole or in part for school-library service. What more often happens, however, is that all the assistance given by the public library is paid for from public library funds. In some communities the service in the schools represents as much as half of the public library budget.

One plan is for the board of education to finance the high-school libraries and for the public library to pay for elementary-school service. The familiar practice of providing classroom loans from the public library is usually provided for in the public library budget with no reimbursement from the board of education, although the cost of maintaining this service may be considerable.

2. Personnel

Where the public library takes an active part in operating the school libraries, the librarians in the schools may be selected, appointed, and supervised by the public library. There is more likelihood, however, of some joint responsibility in the selection of librarians. Again, the board of education may select and appoint the personnel and the public library may supervise the service. The tie-up of the school librarian with the public library has a value in integrating the services of the two agencies but it may have the disadvantage of making the school librarian an outsider rather than a part of the regular school faculty. Differences in working hours and in salaries are likely to emphasize this separateness.

It is important to note, however, that the real basis of school and library co-operation lies in the area of personnel relationships rather than the area of personnel administration. The Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association, reporting on selected examples of good school and library co-operation, noted that in communities where such co-operation prevails the school staff and the public library staff were better acquainted with each other than in other communities.[14] It was found that the public librarians made frequent visits to schools; that frequent notices of library resources were sent to teachers; that teachers were invited to hold committee meetings at the library building; that public librarians were invited to attend staff meetings of board-of-education librarians, and vice versa; and that in general there were many friendly contacts among public librarians, school librarians, and teachers.

3. Quarters and Equipment

In rare cases, made possible by neighboring buildings, a public library is used during school hours as the school library, even to the extent of excluding the adult public at certain hours. With few exceptions, however, boards of education provide the library quarters in school buildings, as well as the furniture and equipment. When the public library is helping to administer school libraries, it often furnishes the technical supplies and sometimes the equipment for cataloging, display, and charging.

Where the library maintains a branch in a school building that serves both students and the adult public, the effort usually is made to have the school board pay for the maintenance of the library quarters only to the extent that they are used by pupils.

4. Books and Other Library Material

Schools and public libraries may be mutually helpful in many ways in the selection, purchase, preparation for use, and actual handling of books and other materials. Public librarians have responded willingly to requests for help in the selection of books for new school libraries as well as in current book-purchasing. Although some duplication of titles is desirable, consultation while orders are being prepared should prevent unwise duplication. In some places the two agencies agree on a division of

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[14] Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association, *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together in School Library Service*, pp. 46–47. Washington: National Education Association, 1941.

responsibility, one buying certain types of books, the other covering different fields.

One of the advantages claimed for the public library's operation of school libraries is that the ordering and cataloging of the school bookstock can be handled more economically and skilfully by the public library staff. When the library buys books with funds provided by the board of education, the frequent practice is to mark the books in such a way that the school-owned books can be separated and returned if necessary. When school-library books are handled by the public library they may be left in the schools in the summer; but more often they are brought back to the public library and are on hand for community use during vacation. An interesting variation of this idea is found in places where the board of education administers the libraries and loans a substantial stock of school-library books to the public library for circulation during the summer.

III. Functional Areas of Co-operation

School-library funds, personnel, quarters, and materials are justified only as they result in educational service to youth. To describe some of the ways that public libraries help school libraries in their direct services to children and young people, three functional areas will be mentioned: teaching the use of libraries, developing reading interests and skills, and stimulating the use of enrichment materials.

1. Teaching the Use of Libraries

Both the schools and the public library are responsible for teaching library habits and skills, and it is in this area that schools and libraries are doing some of their most effective work together. The public library often has led the way by asking the privilege of sending children's librarians to the schools to talk to them about books and the use of the library. Another familiar device for introducing children to the public library is the plan of taking class groups to the library during school hours. In a number of cities a regular schedule of visitation has been worked out whereby the classes go to the library or its branches every week to receive instruction in library use and to select books for home reading. In other places a yearly visit is planned at some special period, such as "Book Week," when the pupils are welcomed in groups at the library.

When the school provides its own well-organized library, pupils learn

the basic skills at school but they still profit by the opportunity to learn to feel at home in the public library itself. In the communities where co-operation is most effective, both teachers and school librarians help the pupils to see the value of the public library as a social institution. They encourage pupils to hold public library cards and commend them in their use of public facilities. They give publicity to Saturday-morning story hours, book clubs, and other activities of the library that are of special value to pupils.

2. Developing Reading Interests and Skills

Mention has been made earlier of visits to schools by children's librarians. Often such visits make a feature of story-telling and book-reviews that help guide pupils toward books of high literary quality. Reading lists for distribution to students or for the guidance of teachers are sometimes prepared by public libraries. The schools may help the public library's own program in this area; for example, by rendering volunteer service at the library on Saturdays during the story hour. The vacation reading clubs and awards sponsored jointly by the schools and the library have been useful in improving both the quantity and the quality of reading done by school pupils during the summer. In one city the library and the schools sponsor a yearly institute and courses on young people's reading which are attended by social workers, parents, and other workers with youth.

3. Stimulating the Use of Enrichment Materials

In some schools the opening wedge of library service that led to the later establishment of school libraries was the plan of classroom loans from public libraries. These classroom deposits have been of many different kinds—books mainly for the teachers' own use; factual books related to topics being studied by the class; classics to supplement the study of literature; miscellaneous fiction for the children to take home for leisure-time reading. The organization of school libraries has led to a reduced use of public library loans in some communities but in others it has merely extended the practice. It is not unusual for a public library to deposit several hundred books with a school library for an entire school term, the books to be used by the school library in whatever way is most effective.

Beyond the limits of the school day, the reference resources of the public library are available. In some cities pupils find a special school reference room in the public library, with reserve shelves ready, containing the books most in demand. In one city a reference librarian visits the high school each afternoon to get information on assignments and current projects likely to result in special demands on the reference collection. Public libraries often are handicapped in the reference service they give to pupils by the failure of teachers to notify them of the subjects on which calls may be expected. On the other hand, a great deal is done in many places in providing class reading lists and in keeping the public library informed about current school projects.

IV. Improvement of Working Relationships

The responsibility for improvement of working relationships between the schools and the public library is a widely divided responsibility. It might be suggested that the persons who really ought to study the possibilities are the superintendent of schools and the public librarian. Certainly there is every reason for these two officials to confer frequently about methods of mutual assistance. Any city-wide plan of action would require their attention. Other persons, however, can also show leadership in this area. Every teacher should be thoroughly familiar with the resources of the public library and should be prepared to help her pupils use these resources to the limit. Librarians should not wait for invitations to visit schools but should make their own welcomes, if necessary, in order to learn what the school program is and to find ways in which the public library can help. School principals and supervisors are in position to try out experimental programs in co-operation with the public library. Such an experiment in one school or district might serve as a demonstration for the entire school system.

Whatever the plan, the key to its success will be the personal enthusiasm, intelligence, and good will of the teachers and librarians—both school librarians and public librarians—who work together in rendering service to the children and young people of the community.

III

ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL-LIBRARY SERVICE IN RURAL AREAS

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The value of the library to the modern teaching program is today unquestioned in theory. Well-planned library programs have been accepted in varying degrees by the urban schools, improvements have been made in state certification standards, state aids, and the employment of school-library supervisors, but the great majority of our rural schools are still without library facilities to meet the educational challenge of our time.

There have been periods in many states when intensive campaigns were conducted for the establishment of libraries in all rural schools, but the results were usually temporary because the units of organization were too small. It is interesting to note that as far back as 1870 one state provided for the employment of a school librarian by the board of a common school, though there is no evidence that any rural school was fortunate enough to take advantage of this ruling.

According to recent figures from the United States Office of Education, one-half of our school population lives in rural areas, i.e., in towns with a population of less than twenty-five hundred. Approximately fifty thousand schools have less than seven teachers, 65 per cent of these having one teacher and 82 per cent having one or two teachers. Surveys have shown that these schools do not have adequate library facilities. The book collections are small and the titles unsuited to the needs of boys and girls. Book funds are limited. Some materials may be borrowed from the state library agency, though few agencies have the means to supply all requests received. About one-tenth of the counties in the United States have county-wide service, but this does not mean that the schools in all of those areas are being adequately served. It is obvious that a desire for books and libraries is not enough; there must also be a workable plan based on service to larger areas, financed in part by state or federal funds. The lack of greater progress in this direction is no less, perhaps, than in other fields, but in any case an understanding of the deterring factors is imperative before they can be eliminated.

I. Rural School Library Problems

It is questionable whether any rural school, unless it is a consolidated unit, is able to afford an adequate library. The books needed by a single grade for one unit of study would exhaust the library budget of most rural schools, and could these books be purchased it would be poor economy to have so many titles remaining idle several months of the year. To supply the recreational needs of the pupils would also tax the budget, though the need for ample material of this kind is recognized by progressive teachers, reading experts, and adult-education groups.

The importance of sufficient funds cannot be overestimated, though several other factors have also contributed to the slow development of rural school libraries. The inadequacy of library standards in some state education programs, the insufficiency of state-aid funds, and the lack of state library leadership might well be contributing factors. Many state laws do provide encouragement aids, but these have been largely ineffective when the aids have gone only to small unrelated units.

A review of the legal provisions for the establishment and maintenance of school libraries reveals four states without such laws. Twenty-one states provide expressly for the establishment of school libraries, and thirty-three make definite provisions for their financial support. In thirty-seven states there is specific legislation regarding the relationships between schools and public libraries.[15]

The extent to which legal provisions have influenced the growth of school libraries cannot be determined without an examination of the state school and library standards for the administration of the laws. Although relevant figures are not available, it is known that the practice of providing for fixed budgets for school-library purposes is not as common as the practice of allowing for school libraries only those balances left over from various school funds. A study of state standards also shows that many states having mandatory provision for the financial support of school libraries require expenditures so meager that the maintenance of library service in the real meaning of the term is impossible.

The average rural teacher has not been given a sufficient amount of training in the use of libraries or books. In studying the relationship of the teacher-training institutions to the development of libraries, there is some evidence to indicate that more stress has been placed on semipro-

[15] Edith A. Lathrop and Ward W. Keesecker, *Laws Affecting School Libraries.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 7, 1940. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940.

fessional library training than on instruction designed to help the teacher utilize the resources of a library in carrying out a teaching program. In this connection the editorial committee of the Twelfth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals has raised three important questions: "Is it because many teachers were trained in older technics which have no place for library books? Does our traditional school organization discourage the use of supplementary materials? Are principals or, for that matter, teachers and superintendents opposed to or uninformed about the use of books and reference materials?"[16]

The lack of public library facilities is another factor not to be overlooked. Today there are adequate public libraries for only one-third of our population, while another third has some books but inadequate service, and the last third has neither books nor public libraries within reach. The desirability of schools co-operating with the public libraries is unquestioned. However, in many of our rural communities where it is most needed, the public library is either nonexistent or incapable of meeting the demands made upon it. The co-ordination of the school-library program with that of the county library is difficult when fewer than three hundred out of 3,072 counties have county libraries and when some of these are without adequate funds or trained personnel.

The most obvious difficulty in giving good school-library service to all rural children may be said to be centered in the unit of service. If the attendance and administrative unit is too small, then the finances are inadequate; if state standards and laws are concerned only with small units, and teacher-training agencies are unaware of the need for training students who will demand good library facilities obtainable only through larger units, then all our efforts will produce nothing more than static collections of inappropriate books.

II. The Advantages of the Large Unit of Service

Educators and librarians have generally agreed that if we are to extend equal library opportunities to all school children, a well-supported and administered county or regional library system[17] is the best method for bringing good library service to the rural schools in most sections of the

[16] *Elementary School Libraries*, p. 150. Twelfth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association. Washington: National Education Association, 1933.

[17] The terms regional, county, and public library are used interchangeably in this discussion of the large unit of service, since it is difficult to use any one term to describe the type of organization best suited to all states.

United States. Indeed, the years of futile effort already spent by the individual small school in trying to build its own library collection should be sufficient proof that some other approach must be tried. The county library system has given evidence of its ability to serve the small school, though many counties are too small, too poor, or in other ways inadequate to serve as co-operative library units. This is one of the reasons why the idea of a regional library, disregarding existing political units, has come into favor.

Though the present and possible types of organization of county and regional libraries vary greatly, a study of the relative merits of the various forms is not necessary here, since our concern is primarily with the possibilities offered by these organizations for service to rural schools. What are some of these services and how can they be given to the small school by a large library unit?

The greatest advantage which the rural school receives through co-operation with a large library unit is an increased number of books. The books of all the co-operating schools attain their maximum usefulness through circulation to every school in the system instead of remaining on the shelves of each school after a brief period of service. In California, the State Department of Education has stated that the county library system enables each school to enjoy the use of at least five times as many books in one year as the school would be able to purchase with its individual library fund.

It is also probable that not only the quantity but the quality of the books will be improved. Today, few one- and two-room schools have many appropriate titles even when state-approved library lists are available to choose from. A trained librarian with a wide knowledge of books, an understanding of the reading interests and habits of boys and girls, and the co-operation of the teacher can build a collection that is both useful and attractive. Co-operation provides not only a larger, more suitable book collection but also a greater variety of miscellaneous materials—pamphlets, pictures, magazines, and clippings.

Any well-chosen library collection is useful in proportion to its organization and administration, and few teachers have either the training or the time necessary to classify and catalog books. No school can expect to have good library service unless someone trained to perform the technical and mechanical processes is employed for this purpose.

The other services which a professional librarian is prepared to offer occupy a prominent place among the advantages accruing to the small

school which joins forces with a large library system. If the library service available to rural children is to approximate that given to children in urban areas, it must encourage and assist young people in using books not only as tools of work but as means of recreation; it must furnish reading guidance, and it must provide children with a knowledge of how to use libraries. The librarian is prepared to offer reading guidance and to assist in teaching the use of books and libraries. In some localities it may be possible for her to visit the school and participate in the instruction. A number of counties now make it possible for the librarian to call at the school at regular intervals, to bring books to the school, to talk to the teacher about her needs for the next teaching unit, to tell stories to the children, or to assist in one of the many ways of providing children with library experience.

In any co-operative undertaking the obligations of the parties concerned need to be clearly defined. Under most conditions it is desirable to have a contract which explains the services to be given and the conditions to be met by the school and the library. The amount to be contributed by the school will vary for different localities, but many states and accrediting associations recommend an expenditure for books of one dollar per pupil.

The school also has the responsibility for providing appropriate library quarters. The desirability of a central library within a school is not questioned, yet recognizing the difficulty of this for one- and two-room units, no school need be without one section of shelving, reserved for library books only. In many schools it will be possible to arrange a cheerful, inviting library corner, including a bulletin board, a low table, and a few chairs; this combination can be made into a satisfactory substitute for a school library.

The kinds of book material to be furnished by the library will depend in part on the school's objectives, but an agreement on this point should be reached when the contract is made. Encyclopedias and unabridged dictionaries are permanent equipment needed constantly by all schools and should be bought by the schools. Texts and supplementary readers are not library materials and, except under special circumstances, should not be purchased by the library. Conversely, the kinds of books to be provided by the public library should consist of general reference materials, recreational books, and some professional titles.

The role which the teacher is to play should also be indicated in the contract, since, without her co-operation and understanding, the plan

cannot achieve success. The arrangement and housing of the books, the organization of student groups to take over simple charging processes and records, the care of the bulletin board, and the stimulation of reading habits are among the obligations of the teacher. She must also endeavor to keep the library informed of the units of work to be studied, of the presence of handicapped or brilliant pupils in need of special materials, and of the books desired to demonstrate the value of reading for pleasure.

III. The Role of the Public Library

Under ideal conditions no library should serve as a central agency unless it has an adequate income, although how much is adequate is still a debatable question. It has been estimated that adequate service for a regional unit requires a yearly budget of not less than $25,000. There is a large discrepancy, at the present time, between the amount suggested and the amount available to many public and county libraries, but one of the most promising possibilities for reducing the gap lies in regional planning. The schools that are interested in obtaining co-operative service will do well to study the proposal, since efficient school service is dependent to a large extent on co-operation with an agency large enough to employ a librarian trained for work with the schools.

The careful selection of books and their mechanical and technical preparation are among the important functions of the public library. Reference service, the loan of books and supplemental materials from the general collection, and the repair of books in the circulating collection should also be provided for by the public library.

The transportation of books to and from the school library is frequently left to the school, which usually means that the teacher must be responsible for securing them. A combination of book truck-service and mail-service is a more satisfactory answer to this problem and one which the public library is better equipped to provide than the school.

The regional library organizing co-operative school-library service should offer expert leadership, trained personnel, service and materials planned to meet specific needs, and distribution services.

IV. Existing Plans

A survey of the co-operative plans in operation today reveals a variety, some achieving admirable results, others offering service too inadequate in quantity and quality to be of much value.

One plan of voluntary co-operation is known as the county circulating-

library. Each co-operating school contributes a stated sum, the books are bought by the county superintendent, and a central collection is set up in his office. A co-operative book-buying plan is one step ahead of the procedure whereby each school attempts to buy all of its own materials, and it may in time lead to the establishment of an adequate service unit; but, as the plan is usually operated, it results in a circulating book collection and not a library. Available information about these collections is scarce, but the few known facts indicate the absence of trained librarians and the lack of adequate funds. One notable exception is found in Virginia, where fourteen counties have established county school circulating-libraries controlled and financed by the county boards of education and operated by trained librarians.

Many existing county libraries contract to give book service to rural schools. When the library is in charge of a professional person and the schools pay an adequate fee, this plan frequently results in highly satisfactory service to schools.

California is one of the few states that can provide a description of a firmly established, well-administered county library system. In 1911 the legislature enacted a law permitting the rural schools to contract with the county library for service: under this plan each school district contributes its library fund of not less than $25 per teacher. Since its beginning the service has grown steadily until today 83 per cent of the elementary-school districts are enrolled. In 1934 a survey was made to determine the extent to which the demands of the schools were being met. It was found that the service provided texts and reference books as well as books for general reading, periodicals, phonograph records, stereographs, pictures, globes, maps, charts, films, and a variety of miscellaneous materials, such as sheet music, moving-picture machines, films, and exhibits. The number of books loaned averaged twelve per pupil, in addition to the books placed in the schools as permanent collections and the use of the other materials listed above.

An earlier survey made in 1928 compared the rural school library service in two adjacent counties, one of which was affiliated with the county library while the other maintained an independent library. Both school systems spent approximately the same amount of money, but the results were quite different. In the county with the independent library the available books were soon read by the pupils and then left on the shelves. In the second county, where the schools were affiliated with a county library and the funds from many schools had been pooled, the county li-

brary served as a medium of exchange. A trained librarian supervised the purchase and circulation of various kinds of materials, with the result that a maximum amount of service was received for the money spent.

Regional library development began around 1930 and has spread to about a dozen states. The multi-county service initiated by the Tennessee Valley Authority in Tennessee well illustrates the possibilities when national, state, and local groups combine to establish a "unified program of library service adequate to both community and school needs."

In 1939 the first of four contracts was executed by the T.V.A., the Tennessee Department of Education, and the Board of Library Trustees of the City of Knoxville. The Watts Bar Region, as it is known, is made up of four counties; the regional library for this area serves the employees of the T.V.A. and the adults and children in the rural sections of these counties. At the end of 1941 there were four county library boards, fifteen community libraries, 32,000 books in the circulating collections, and 10,000 borrowers.

According to the state school library supervisor, Miss Martha Parks, there are three central circulating county-collections of books for the elementary schools and five high-school libraries included in the program. In every case the high schools maintain their library independence, being serviced by book loans and by occasional supervisory visits of the regional or county librarian. The elementary schools follow two plans: one in which they depend on the county or regional system for the required number of books to maintain their library standards, and the other in which they borrow only occasionally from the county library to supplement their permanent collections. This plan, together with the state-aid library program which controls the selection of books bought with state funds, has done much to improve the quality of reading material in the schools, as well as to increase its quantity.[18]

These are but a few of the encouraging developments for co-operative service between rural schools and public libraries. Recent legislation for regional libraries has been passed in many states. Tennessee has three regional libraries, in addition to the one above described, serving fourteen counties and offering service which supplements and co-ordinates that being given by existing libraries. According to the secretary of the Vermont Free Public Library Commission, the rural schools of that state are given regular book-wagon service throughout the school year. Each

[18] This statement was furnished by Miss Parks in response to a questionnaire.

school is visited every two months, so that at least four visits a year are possible. The aim is to lend at least one book per pupil and a minimum of three for each teacher. Teachers may exchange their books between book-wagon visits, either by calling at the regional office or by mail. Alabama has one regional library which serves three counties. With W.P.A. help, Georgia began a demonstration in the fall of 1940 which now serves three counties through appropriations made by counties, cities, and school boards. There are three regional bookmobiles in the county library system. North Carolina has two regional libraries and many county systems.

Throughout the United States, according to the American Library Association statistics for February, 1942, there are 556 counties being served by county or regional library systems; not all of these organizations are equipped to provide the rural schools with library service, but the number is growing. The goal of equal library opportunities for all school children is obviously not to be reached in the near future, but the leaders agree that it will come if all join forces in the establishment of library service through intelligent co-operation.

IV

STATE SUPERVISION, STATE AID, AND CERTIFICATION

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Since adequate school-library service is essential to the educational program, it should be state-wide. It should exist not only in the progressive and wealthy sections but also in the less favored parts of a state. Among the means employed to achieve this end are state supervision, state aid, and certification. In the following pages it is proposed to discuss these forms of control, which are exercised by the state with the object of assisting schools to provide adequate library service.

I. State Supervision

a. Development. Supervision of school libraries has been a matter of gradual growth. From the very beginnings of school libraries, some attention has been given by state education and library officials to the collection of statistics regarding library service, to the formulation of regulations on the care and use of school libraries, and to the administration of grants to promote the development of these libraries.

The increasing realization of the importance of school libraries has led a number of states to place the responsibility for the supervision of school libraries in the hands of a specially trained person or group of persons. The New York State Education Department did so in 1906, Minnesota took similar steps in 1911, and other states followed. A few examples may serve to show the variety of ways in which this specialized service has developed.

In 1891, the Wisconsin State Legislature carried out the constitutional provisions regarding the permanent school-library fund by creating the position of a clerk, "who shall under the direction of the state superintendent, aid in promoting the establishment, maintenance and control of school libraries as provided by law." Out of this position grew that of the "supervisor of school libraries," established in 1921; and with the increase in work, the creation of an additional position, "assistant supervisor."

In five southern states, Alabama, Kentucky, Louisiana, North Carolina, and Tennessee, a series of demonstrations financed by the General Education Board has stimulated state supervision of school libraries through the state departments of education. In Virginia the Board financed the work of an assistant supervisor in the division of school libraries and textbooks, established in 1923 as a unit in the state department of education. Having seen the benefits obtained from this supervision, all states except one assumed responsibility for the activity at the conclusion of the demonstration. For example, Louisiana accepted aid for a demonstration in 1929 and took over the work officially in 1934; North Carolina utilized the grant for the first time in 1930 and made a state appropriation for the supervision of libraries in 1935; Alabama had the demonstration start in 1931 and assumed official responsibility in 1937; Tennessee had the benefit of the grant from 1932 to 1937, after which time the work became an official state activity; in Virginia a state appropriation was made for the assistant supervisor after a two-year demonstration, which began July 1, 1932.

State supervision of school libraries in Georgia came about in a somewhat different manner. According to the report of the state department of education for 1936–38, the library division was established in response to the request of teachers and school officials for adequate library facilities and central direction of library activities. In the summer of 1937, the state board of education authorized the state superintendent of education to appoint a supervisor of school libraries, and in the spring of 1938 it set aside funds from balances in the textbook fund for the purchase of school-library books.

Illinois has placed the function of school-library supervision in the state library. Legislation in 1939 authorized that agency to be the clearinghouse for problems relating to the administration and functioning of school libraries. In 1940, a state appropriation made it possible for the state library to add to its staff a field library visitor whose duties are to aid school libraries and to work in co-operation with the state education officials.

b. Present Status. At present, the position of state school library supervisor exists in Alabama, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Minnesota, Missouri, New York, North Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, and Wisconsin. Of these thirteen states, New York, Virginia, and Wisconsin have assistant supervisors in addition to the supervisors, while Missouri and Utah have supervisors who give only part time to school-library problems. In all cases except Illinois, the school-library supervisory unit is in the state department of education.

The place of the unit in the administrative organization of the twelve state departments of education varies considerably. In two instances, Virginia and Utah, the supervisor responsible for school libraries has the chief state school officer as his immediate superior; in Tennessee the director of the school-libraries division reports directly to the assistant commissioner of education and is co-ordinate with the heads of other major divisions. In six cases, Alabama, Louisiana, Missouri, New York, North Carolina, and Wisconsin, the supervisor is immediately responsible to the official in charge of the instructional or supervisory program. With regard to New York, it should be noted that, although the two supervisors in the new scheme of organization report to the associate commissioner of education in the field of instructional supervision, they are under the continued supervision of the director of the division of adult education and library service. The Georgia supervisor has the director of textbooks and library service as her immediate superior officer; and the Minnesota

supervisor is responsible to the head of the division of public libraries, a unit in the state department of education. In Indiana, the school-library supervisor reports to the head of the extension division of the state library, a unit of the state department of education. Illinois, which has placed the responsibility for aiding school libraries in the state library and not in the state department of education, has the supervisor under the administrative direction of the head of the library extension division. In general, it may be said that, with only a few exceptions, the school-library supervisory function is located in a subordinate unit of one of the major divisions of the departmental organization.

It may be of interest to note the terms used in the official title of the position. In five states, the word "supervisor" appears as a part of the title; in four instances, the title is "director"; in two states the term is "adviser"; in one, "consultant"; and in one (Illinois), "field visitor." In other words, about three-fourths of the states have indicated in the title a supervisory and directing characteristic; the others have stressed the advisory aspect.

In addition to the states just mentioned, something should be said about others which have had school-library supervisory programs at one time. Two states, Florida and Oregon, for example, have recently suspended the activity, not because it had proved unsatisfactory but because funds were lacking. The work in Florida was financed jointly on a part-time basis during 1937 to 1939 by the state department of education and the state university, the service being operated from Gainesville, the seat of the university. In Oregon, a school-library adviser was employed by the state library during the school year 1939–40 to undertake an extensive program of supervisory work. The Oregon State Library has been required by legislation enacted in 1901 to perform certain administrative duties in connection with the selection and care of books purchased with county school library funds. Three other states formerly had state supervisors of school libraries: Kentucky, 1933–37; Michigan, 1926–33; and Pennsylvania, 1921–27.

c. Supervisory Activities. Supervisory activities are directed toward the improvement and extension of adequate school-library service throughout the state. Some of them are mainly administrative in character, such as carrying out prescribed procedures in connection with the allocation of state aid to school libraries, or in preparing lists of books suitable for purchase by school libraries. The collection of library sta-

tistics is another administrative duty that comes within the supervisory function.

At times, supervisory activities assume a very direct form, as is the case when supervisors visit libraries in order to evaluate them for grants, accreditation, or classification, or to enforce standards set up as necessary for adequate library service. Other service rendered includes advice to the local school librarian and school officials regarding the book collection, arrangement of library quarters, and improvement of equipment. In some cases, the supervisory officials organize school libraries.

Some details about several of these duties may bring out their significance in the supervisory program. In the case of the much-stressed approval and recommendation of books for school libraries, these accounts from a few states may indicate what is involved. The Alabama State Department of Education, for instance, reports that its school-library consultant prepares book lists for both elementary and secondary schools, but the local officials are not legally required to use them in making their purchases. In the New York State Education Department, the supervisors of school libraries recommend purchase lists for high schools, which under a department regulation must have approved library collections, and they prepare and publish short lists on special subjects. During 1938 in Louisiana, the school-library supervisor approved a total of 204,000 books which were purchased with state funds and distributed free to school libraries. The Minnesota state library supervisor is responsible for the preparation of lists from which books purchased with state funds must be selected. This supervisory activity in connection with books going into school libraries affords not only an effective means of control over the book-selection policies of local schools but also a positive way to improve the quality of book selection throughout the state.

The significance which the collection of statistics has for the supervisory program might also be mentioned. This duty is more than a mere gathering of figures on various phases of school-library routines and processes. When properly interpreted and used, the data yield a basis for correcting deficiencies in service, measuring development, and planning for improvement. In addition, the actual keeping of these statistics by the local library brings about certain adjustments in library practices.

Among the methods used to accomplish their objectives, state library supervisors use visits to schools, in-service institutes, and publications. The nature and purpose of these visits may be explained best by a few descriptions. For example, the Indiana school-library supervisor reports

that her visits to libraries are devoted primarily to analyzing the library equipment and books, a report of which is made to the local administrative and supervisory officials. Attention is also paid to library personnel.

In 1940 the Louisiana supervisor stated that her purpose in visiting school libraries was to observe the work of librarians, to stimulate interest in library service, to make suggestions for the improvement of the book collection, and to evaluate the libraries for accrediting purposes. Furthermore, she advised with librarians and school officials regarding the wise use of the book collection, improvements in room and equipment, and mending and binding of books.

The director of the division of school libraries in Tennessee visits the offices of county superintendents of schools and elementary supervisors and public libraries in order to assist in the formulation of plans for the expenditure of state aid for libraries including the selection, purchase, and distribution of books on a county-wide basis and to encourage cooperation of schools and existing public library agencies.

The extent of this aspect of supervision may be indicated by the number of visits made: from Georgia, the supervisor reports a total of 125 visits during the biennium 1938–40; Illinois, a total of 176 visits for the school visitor during 7 months of 1940; Indiana, 90 during the school year, 1937–38; Oregon, 146 during 10 months of the 1939–40 school year; and New York, with two supervisors, 183 visits in 1938–39. The Alabama supervisor reported that about one-third of her time has been spent in the field during 1938. Nearly all the supervisory officials point out that insufficient personnel and lack of funds for travel prevent their visiting all school libraries at frequent enough intervals.

Closely allied to these individual visits are conferences with school librarians and other school officials. As reported by the supervisors, these consist of small group conferences held either in their offices or in connection with field visits, as well as larger ones planned for the discussion of specific library problems with certain groups. Speaking of the first kind, the Minnesota supervisor notes that the subject of conference usually was the relationship of the library to the educational program of the school and the formulation of procedures designed to further the usefulness of the library. From the Virginia supervisor comes the report of the successful use of regional conferences within the state to achieve the objectives of the school-library program. Similarly, the New York State Education Department report for 1937–38 records eight regional confer-

ences for school libraries, with special emphasis being placed on the improvement of relationships between schools and public libraries.

Another method used in the supervisory program is that of issuing publications. The effective use of book lists in improving book collections has already been discussed. The issuance of printed or mimeographed manuals, usually prepared by the supervisor, serves to acquaint the school librarians with forward-looking practice and with the standards required by the state. The use of monthly newsletters and monthly columns in official journals furnishes another medium for disseminating information in the interest of improved library practices and services. For instance, the *Minnesota Library Notes and News*, published by the Library Division of the State Department of Education, is used by the school-library supervisor for this purpose. The North Carolina school-library adviser issues a mimeographed monthly newsletter for the benefit of school libraries. The Virginia supervisor makes much use of the *Virginia Journal of Education* in order to further the cause of school libraries in the state. Reports from supervisors appear to place publications high among the means of attaining the objectives of the school-library supervisory program.

d. Difficulties in Attainment of Objectives. In a recent survey made by the United States Office of Education,[19] these factors emerged as constituting the chief hindrances to the attainment of objectives: lack of funds; insufficient clerical assistance; and lack of understanding on the part of school and library authorities as to what constitutes adequate library service. Other difficulties mentioned occasionally were insufficient office space, inadequately trained persons in charge of libraries, and the serious lack of elementary-school library facilities. In general, the school-library supervisors endeavor to attain their objectives by establishing sympathetic relationships with local librarians and school officials rather than by acting as inspectors from a central agency.

II. State Aid

Adequate library service cannot be provided below a minimum level of support, no matter what the economic wealth of a given community

[19] *Organization and Functions of State Agencies for Library Service.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 6, 1940. Monograph 16. Washington: Government Printing Office (in progress).

may be. With the different sections of the state varying so greatly in resources, the provision of essential school-library service on a state-wide basis depends in great measure upon the availability of funds for equalizing the library facilities and services in all areas. The majority of the states have assumed responsibility for aiding local districts in the financial support of schools through their permanent common-school funds.

a. Present Status. At present thirteen states have express legislation which provides that state funds may be expended for school libraries. In addition, a few (Alabama, Georgia, and Indiana) make such expenditures on the basis of administrative or judicial decisions regarding the use of state funds appropriated for various school purposes such as equalization, textbooks, and school relief.[20]

The various ways by which state aid is made available may be grouped into three categories: first, through funds available for general school purposes, as in California (state elementary-school fund), Iowa, Maryland, North Carolina, and Wisconsin; second, through state appropriations expressly for libraries, as in Connecticut, Minnesota, New Jersey, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia; and third, through state appropriations for textbooks, as in Florida, Louisiana, North Carolina, and South Carolina.

The formulas specified for calculating the yearly grants show great variation. Among the different bases used are: number of pupils, number of teachers, a percentage of the unused portion of the textbook fund, and a flat rate per school. The amounts vary as much as the bases, as for instance, "not less than forty cents nor more than one dollar per pupil in average daily attendance in the elementary schools," and "from state apportionment, fifteen cents for each person of school age residing in each school corporation." Such variations are to be expected because conditions are different and each state has its own plan for financing its educational program.

Legislation is not the only way by which school libraries have obtained state financial support. A few states without such laws have found it possible to grant aid as a result of administrative rulings which permit

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[20] Edith A. Lathrop and Ward W. Keesecker, *Laws Affecting School Libraries.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 7, 1940. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941; Edith A. Lathrop, "State Financial Support for School Libraries," *School Life,* XXVII (December, 1941), 89–92.

portions of certain state funds to be used for school-library purposes. In Alabama, for instance, local boards have been authorized by the state board of education to use portions of the minimum program fund (an equalization fund) for school libraries. Furthermore, an interpretation of the Alabama law regarding the free-textbook fund for public elementary schools allows any surplus, after the first three grades are supplied with textbooks, to be spent for library books.

Administrative rulings in Georgia permit portions of the free-textbook funds to be used for the purchase of school-library books. The Indiana law gives the "board of the department of education" (formerly called the state board of education) authority to establish regulations, standards, and policies controlling the distribution of the school-relief fund. Acting on this the board has provided that local school units may receive for any one year assistance for building up school libraries at not to exceed fifty cents per pupil enrolled.

b. Amount of State Aid. Tennessee has had state appropriations for school libraries since 1923, and has required the amounts to be matched by funds raised locally. The annual expenditures have varied from a minimum of $2,892 in 1935 to a maximum of $71,947 in 1937. In 1941, the amount of state aid available was $45,000.

During the period from January 1, 1938, to December 31, 1941, the Virginia state appropriation has been increased from $33,000 to $100,000 per year, with the result that the state now matches the local school authorities dollar for dollar instead of providing only twenty-five cents for each local dollar, as formerly. The gross expenditure for books from state and local funds, during the four years, has amounted to $912,621; and the average annual expenditure per school library has increased from $147 to $235. The Georgia State Board of Education set aside $150,000 from the state textbook fund for the purchase of school-library books for elementary and secondary schools.

If the nation is considered as a whole, the state aid available per school library has not been great. Furthermore, state aid for school libraries exists in comparatively few states, and in some of those the amounts have been too small for the effective stimulation of school libraries. In the states which have appropriated sizable amounts, such as $50,000 or $100,000 a year, the grants have been a decided factor in stimulating school-library service.

III. Certification

Certification of school librarians is an effective means of influencing the quality of service rendered. Its purpose is to insure that the management of school libraries is entrusted only to those who are qualified by education, training, and experience.

a. Present Status. At the present time, at least thirty states and the District of Columbia have adopted regulations for the issuance of certificates specifically for school librarians.[21] Eight states have legislation expressly providing for the certification of librarians; in other states regulations have been established under the general powers of certification vested by law in certain state school officials. The states with regulations in effect are:

Alabama	Maine	Oklahoma
California	Michigan	Oregon
Connecticut	Minnesota	Pennsylvania
Delaware	Mississippi	South Carolina
Florida	New Hampshire	South Dakota
Georgia	New Jersey	Utah
Indiana	New York	Virginia
Iowa	North Carolina	Washington
Kentucky	North Dakota	West Virginia
Louisiana	Ohio	Wisconsin

In sixteen other states the power of determining what qualifications the school librarian shall possess rests with the local boards of education.

b. Certification Regulations. As an illustration of what may be included, the regulations on certification issued by state certifying authority for accredited high schools in North Carolina might be noted. For a full-time librarian's certificate, the holder must have a degree from a standard four-year college and must possess professional qualifications not less than those required for a Class A teacher's certificate. In addition, twenty-four semester hours of library science in an accredited library school are required, this training to include courses in administration, cataloging and classification, reference, and children's and adolescent literature. To obtain a teacher-librarian certificate, which will enable the applicant

[21] Edith A. Lathrop, "Certification of School Librarians," *School Life*, XXV (May, 1940), 239, 256.

to work part time in the school library, the same requirements must be met, except that only twelve semester hours in library science are necessary, and the course in cataloging and classification is not included.

Certification regulations will necessarily vary in the different states because of special conditions prevailing. It is important, however, that all regulations specify the minimum amount of training necessary in the academic and professional fields, with sufficient flexibility allowed to cover broad differences in conditions. The general plan for certificating teachers is followed in nearly all states in the certificating of public school librarians. It is important that school librarianship be recognized as a special field for which special preparation is required. The regulations also should contain provisions for the enforcement of the certification requirements. Behind the certification requirements should be the purpose of improving school-library service by having only properly qualified personnel in charge.

CHAPTER XIII

INTERNAL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

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I. INTRODUCTION

Because she must be capable of initiating plans, directing activities, and actually doing all parts of the school-library work as the occasion may arise, the school librarian has come to respect good organization. She is particularly aware of the relationship between a well-functioning library and the quality of the service she contributes to the educational enterprise.[1] Only a beginning has been made when the external control has been determined.

The problem then involves a grasp of community conditions in determining whether the school library will stand alone in contributing to the book needs of the school population or whether it will be subsidiary to strong regional or local library resources. If the school library must bear the full burden of book distribution, it will need more varied facilities than the one able to turn to a larger agency for supplementary materials and assistance. This is particularly true where added resources are near at hand, as in a local public library or one of its neighborhood branches. In this event, any policies to be adopted by the school librarian would naturally have been made in consultation and co-operation with the neighboring librarians to insure a maximum of service with a minimum of duplication.

Then again, within the walls of the school itself there is another community. It is subject to variations created by the local educational philosophy, by the inclusive grades to receive library service, and by the physical facilities with which the library unit will eventually harmonize.

[1] N. E. Beust (comp.), *School Library Administration: An Annotated Bibliography*, pp. 22–25. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 7, 1941. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941.

The school philosophy, for instance, will determine whether the individual pupil will prepare his subjects largely outside of the classroom or whether most of his study will be some part of a supervised learning experience. In either case, the choice will have a direct bearing upon the size and type of centralized library facilities to be provided.

Consideration given to the range of school grades to be served will prevent any one age-group from monopolizing either space or service. This would imply, in a twelve-grade school, attention to furnishings, educational materials, and library organization to fit the three or four ge-groups included. In the small school having a highly homogenous student body, it might rather be a question of the expediency of introducing a separate library unit or of using a combined library–study hall procedure. All these policies are greatly influenced by the question of finances and the establishment of efficient routines making possible the maximum library service consistent with available resources. The school librarian knows that this is possible only by developing adequate supervision to keep the newly created activity in satisfactory working order.

Finally, the conditions created by the present war serve to nullify the value of any discussion of building construction or of renovation, but some basic factors are included to round out the picture of present school-library organization.

II. Physical Aspects of the School Library

1. Location

The actual location of the school library is determined by local conditions. The architectural mass of the building itself may influence the choice of position. In the older rectangular structures the library usually occupies the second floor center front. The newer ones with a wider variety in shape and proportion offer greater possibilities of placement. In the butterfly-shaped building, the library may still be in the central unit, but in a building with a different contour, the library suite may better be placed in the wing itself. An examination of plans for school buildings shown each month in the *American School Board Journal* will illustrate this point. At the same time it will disclose that the best-planned library units are still centralized in respect to main traffic arteries of the school and are usually adjacent to the heart of the area devoted to quiet study and traditional classrooms. Where this has been done, it has been found to be an aid in administering student control of those passing at irregular hours from class to library.

In large secondary schools the library forms one of several study units, but there is a growing tendency to group these rooms in close proximity to permit free access to library resources with the minimum administrative supervision. The senior high school at Appleton, Wisconsin, for example, has its large library flanked on either side by even larger study halls. Junior high schools having their own buildings are likely to follow the practices of the senior high, unless they are using a supervised-study plan. In that case the library functions are modified accordingly.

In the elementary school the actual location of the room in the building is of less importance than the outlook from the windows or the exposure which will insure an attractive library atmosphere. If it is removed from the geographical center of the building, however, its position should be chosen in relation to activities of the upper classes rather than of the lower, as the older children are more likely to use it independently. The little children will usually be escorted on their visits by their class teachers.

Another factor influences room location in consolidated rural schools or in communities where the public library and the school share library quarters. In both cases the adult public is given first consideration. A position in the heart of the school is sacrificed for a location near an outside entrance, especially one used for other semipublic areas of the building, as the auditorium. This usually simplifies heating and lighting at hours when the building is otherwise closed. The library is still centrally located, but in this case with respect to the full community program rather than the program of the school alone. This problem is fully recognized by the Engelhardts in their discussion of the well-planned community school.[2]

The shape of the library is largely controlled by the fact that it is generally a multiple unit of the average classroom dimensions. This implies a rectangular room which is rather too narrow for interesting arrangements of furniture. Any variety gained must come from the grouping of equipment rather than from possible deviations in the structure itself.

2. The Library Suite

a. Standards. Planning of the actual library unit has developed over a series of years, and, with certain exceptions, the original standards are

[2] N. L. Engelhardt and N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., *Planning the Community School.* New York: American Book Co., 1940.

still in use. This would not have been possible had not the specifications first used been flexible. The statements appeared in two committee reports of which C. C. Certain was the chairman.[3] These standards have become even more flexible as they have been incorporated and modified in the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards.[4] They provide for adequate space to house library materials and equipment and to seat patrons comfortably, leaving enough space in the library to permit free movement. In addition, these specifications provide for a working area in which to carry on library routines, with such conveniences as will make the work efficient. The earlier codes fall short today mainly in making too little allowance for changes in educational policy, which now stresses free-reading programs, audio-visual supplements to the printed page, and a greater socialization in class preparation. All these influences demand greater space and make questionable the earlier estimate of capacity, computed on the figures of at least 5 to 10 per cent of the school's enrolment. Experience shows that in schools using the library freely even 20 to 25 per cent may be too little. The question of present school philosophy is again the determining factor.

b. Layouts. Some city or state supervisory agencies supply layouts which can be adapted to local needs. Los Angeles has such a plan which can be superimposed upon the blueprints for its new senior high schools.[5] Twenty-four states have standards for library rooms and twenty-one of these distribute room layouts.[6] As long as these "standards" are used as suggestions only and are adapted to local conditions, they will be helpful, but the danger of their becoming static should not be overlooked.

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[3] Committee on Library Organization and Equipment of the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association, *Standard Library Organization . . . . for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1920; Joint Committee on Elementary-School Library Standards, *Elementary-School Library Standards.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1925. (Reprinted from the Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association.)

[4] Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Standards Committee, *Evaluative Criteria, 1940 Edition.* Washington: The Committee (744 Jackson Place), 1940.

[5] *American School Board Journal,* XCVIII (January, 1939), 26–30, 58.

[6] Alice Barrows, *Assistance on School Plant Problems as a Function of State Departments of Education.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 6, 1940. Monograph No. 4, *Studies in State Departments of Education.* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941.

c. Main Room. Some schools find it advantageous to break the library area into a series of rooms which can be used as separate units. In secondary schools, these rooms may be devoted to specific subject activities with each one containing the main collection devoted to this curriculum. In elementary or twelve-year schools, such a division may be used to accommodate smaller homogenous groups and to improve conditions of room control. Many schools still retain one large, main room, feeling that in this plan the problem of general supervision is simpler. The pupils themselves have expressed a preference for a series of rooms because these are likely to offer better opportunities for concentrated study. This question can best be answered by understanding the implications of the local school philosophy, especially in matters of discipline, supervisory personnel, and general class activities.

d. Conference Rooms. For a number of years school libraries included in their plans a series of glass-walled cubicles to be used as conference rooms by student and faculty committees wishing to work together over library materials. Many have questioned their practical value. These small rooms were not properly ventilated and, when the doors were closed, the air soon became close. Demand for their use for this purpose was not constant enough to keep them regularly occupied, with the result that other library activities gradually usurped the space. Newer buildings frequently modify this idea and use the total space as one or two large rooms, with glass partitions separating them from the main library. This is proving to be a more feasible plan. Some libraries reserve space at each end of the room, and in elementary schools this space is used by the very little children coming with their teachers, or for activities likely to be noisy, or for the older children's reference alcove. In secondary schools such space may be used for a faculty library, a reference room, or a browsing corner.

e. Library Classroom. Libraries often have classroom facilities which were originally used for formal courses in library instruction. With the development of integrated instruction these classrooms have been largely converted to other uses. Where they have been equipped for audio-visual demonstrations, they have met a recent need. In small schools where space is at a premium, room schedules are often arranged so that the library can use an adjoining classroom usually assigned to some other activity.

f. Workroom. The workroom is often omitted entirely or, if included, is sometimes a closet without natural light or sufficient ventilation. It

seems hardly to be expected that satisfactory library routines can be carried on with such inadequate workrooms. Even where a suitable room is included it often happens that no running water has been provided because the library needs are not always as well understood as those for any other laboratory in the school. Particular attention should be given by the librarian to the designing and furnishing of this room, about which other authorities are technically unprepared to pass judgment. The workroom is of vital importance to a library's efficient service.

g. Exits. Another structural handicap results from the unconsidered placement of library doors. To insure adequate control of the library's property, as the crowds surge in and out of the rooms, it is best to have a few well-placed, large doors rather than many widely scattered single ones. One large, center door is preferred in all but very large libraries, where two may be necessary for clearing the rooms quickly.

h. Other Construction Details. Questions of decoration, lighting, floor covering, sound proofing, and treating the room acoustically will probably be a part of the general construction, but the librarian will want to make certain of it. In a recent magazine article, Tinker has summed up the major considerations in school-library lighting by stressing the need for light-colored wall surfaces; furniture with light, dull finish; illumination without glare; and an adequate volume of it to make reading pleasurable.[7] This interest in supplying light without glare has resulted in schools often substituting metal venetian blinds for standard window shades. As far as the library is concerned, such window treatment adds a decorative feature, as well. The horizontal lines of the shutters reinforce the horizontal rows of shelving and so draw all four walls into closer harmony and proportion. With reference to floor coverings, the choice of suitable surfaces as well as their care is considered in Miss Plaister's useful volume.[8] It should not be forgotten, in testing the acoustics of a new room, that books themselves, when they are put into place, will prove to be good sound absorbents. They can be counted upon to produce effects similar to wall boards. Beyond these generalizations it seems hardly practical to discuss the problems of building construction in view of present war conditions.

i. Shelving. Wall shelving continues to follow the traditional specifica-

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[7] M. A. Tinker, "Lighting," *Nation's Schools*, XXVII (May, 1941), 47.

[8] C. D. Plaister, *Floors and Floor Coverings*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939.

tions in height, width of sections, and construction materials. Some libraries are experimenting with bottom shelves that have been tipped at an angle to increase visibility of the last row of books. This has definite advantages to the reading public especially during crowded periods, as titles can be found more quickly. However, a few inches of space, sometimes even the width of one shelf, is lost in making the adjustment, and this should be considered before installation where space is at a premium. The primary innovation is in finish rather than in structure. A number of libraries are experimenting with colored enamels, making the shelves one color on the outside and a brighter one on the inside as a background for the books. The appearance when new is interesting, but, since the enamel on the shelves does not wear as well as the natural wood finishes, its use is open to question where the budget is particularly limited. Otherwise much can be said in favor of its gay appearance, especially in libraries for little children.

j. Furniture and Equipment. The furnishings of the library in the past have been sturdy but rather dull. The three-by-five-foot table recommended as a practical size for general use gave the room a regimented severity which tended to destroy its informality. To overcome this, modern libraries are using tables of various sizes or shapes which may be more attractively grouped. Elementary schools are using tables with tilted tops for the picture-book corner and other delightful innovations to create atmosphere. This furniture, too, is proportionately smaller to make it comfortable for little children. The introduction of settles, a few easy chairs, davenports, or other informal club-furniture has further varied the school-library setting. Some libraries are experimenting with tubular metal equipment, modern furniture design, or gaily painted pieces. The supply houses are still offering the more traditional types, especially American colonial or early American designs developed in maple. In this connection it might be well to notice that the Windsor armchair is less adaptable at library tables than the straight-backed chair, both because it will not fit under the edge of the table and because its proportions hinder good working posture.

The increasing variety of library materials makes further demands for specialized equipment which will provide storage space for pictures, slides, films, records, and ephemera. There is little advantage in discussing these resources at length as it becomes increasingly more difficult to secure all this type of equipment. More floor space and storage room than in the older libraries will be needed for display cases, shelves, and dust-

proof containers for materials used only periodically. In this respect the present library needs cannot be met by the older space and equipment specifications.

In addition to facilities for storage in the library itself, modern schools find it advantageous to supply similar equipment for classrooms, shops, and laboratories, unless the school is too small to warrant even a temporary scattering of educational materials. Where this plan is in operation, the school librarian has noticed that cupboards and bookshelves furnished with locked doors for protecting their contents not under direct supervision have proved most satisfactory. One problem arises in this connection. Where the laboratory or classroom is used for several activities in the course of a day, space which can be divided into a number of small individual storage units is to be preferred. The books are readily available to meet class needs but, at other times, are properly protected against possibly careless misuse.

3. The Library–Study Hall

There is a tendency in small schools, particularly, to amalgamate the study hall with the library. The library hybrid which has developed from this union of school activities is somewhat analogous to the teacher-librarian. At best, the idea has proved workable, but in some cases it has served as a palliative measure, making authorities satisfied with inadequate library quarters when more satisfactory ones were easily possible.

The consolidation has evoked a storm of discussion, but much of it has only added to the confusion of ideas. The problem is a variable one, depending for its solution largely upon local conditions and resources. Much of the disagreement grows out of the fact that school administrators and librarians often fail to catch the point of the other's argument. For instance, the principal in a small school knows that he has a limited number on his faculty and much is expected of each one. It is administratively impossible to plan a teaching schedule which will provide a person to direct the library activities and another to supervise the study hall. Naturally, he is interested in any means of consolidating library and study hall, which seem to him to have much in common. In adopting this plan he may fail to see, as the librarian working with the pupils does, that it has its limitations. Pupils engaged in intensive study of a single text and pupils using many books in the preparation of assignments may be jointly supervised if the whole group is small, but the problem of guidance in the

use of library materials becomes a serious one for a large group, if to guidance must be added the function of supervising the study hall.

A second point at issue is closely related to this. The average study hall is still conducted on the old monitorial system used in the early grammar schools, while the library is a modern socialized activity. To permit either type of activity to predominate would result in submerging the other. Yet in schools where the library–study hall is most successful this conflict has been avoided by creating a new social influence. It is analogous to the transfer of the classroom from the period of question and answer to one of socialized activity. Where the school has already done this, it should be able equally well to set up a new order in the study areas, placing emphasis upon group learning rather than upon mass discipline. Discipline is needed, but under the new order it can be the product of public opinion. When students are interested in what they are doing, they can be encouraged to work in a quiet, orderly manner.

Another difficulty concerns the physical room itself. Where an old, crowded study hall is used, it cannot have superimposed upon its already cramped condition a department requiring floor and wall space for quantities of equipment. The library shelves, the catalog cases, the vertical files, and the more informal types of furniture will crowd out a part of the student body which the room could formerly accommodate. (This actually makes the library cost more than the average study hall per cubic foot of space available for pupil use.) Crowding can be overcome in some cases by rescheduling groups and by furnishing the room with two types of equipment, in proportions needed for those doing library investigation and for those occupied with more regimented types of study.

An important problem connected with the physical equipment is that of safeguarding the book collection when the large study hall is unoccupied. If it is also used as the school auditorium it is difficult to prevent losses in the book collection. Until a school finds a feasible plan for preventing losses, it may prefer not to initiate a program of consolidation.

A final point concerns the librarian's load. Formulas have been developed for measuring teaching loads not only in hours but in the size of classes (pupil-periods); there is none as yet for estimating that of the school librarian. Many administrators underestimate the demands made upon the librarian, and, because of this, they do not see that library work has more in common with teaching than with the monitorial supervision usually associated with the direction of a study hall. There is always the danger with the heavier pupil-period load that there will be a relatively

decreasing opportunity for library service—that the school library might become a mere shell of equipment, lacking entirely the educational vitality which marks all effective organization.

All these obstacles need to be faced realistically by administrator and school librarian alike, and some satisfactory interpretation discovered before initiating a library–study hall plan. Probably the small schools will find the answer most easily. Their aggregate, though, is large; the 1937–38 national average enrolment in public high schools for continental United States (including junior, senior, and four-year combinations) was 301.8 pupils with 12.3 teachers and staff per school, or 24.6 pupils to a teacher.[9] Similar low enrolment figures are also shown for a selected group which include some form of library service. The 1939–40 annual reports of secondary schools accredited by the North Central Association show an enrolment per school ranging from an average of 234 pupils for those in North Dakota to 803 in Illinois.[10] Both groups of statistics are indicative of the need for a more complete understanding of the library–study hall problem, and the factors involved in its satisfactory solution. In working out specifications for the small school it may be possible to show at what enrolment figures the plan fails to be most effective and where special study units might best be substituted to insure the maximum results from library service.

Whether the school library is conceived as a separate entity functioning in close co-operation with the other units of the study area, or whether it is thought of as a consolidation of all study activities, depends largely upon local requirements and resources. In either case, the test of its appropriate form will be measured in terms of the successful service the school library is able to render.

III. Administrative Aspects of the School Library

In the course of planning the physical setup of the school library it becomes immediately evident that certain library policies will have direct bearing upon these needs and should have early consideration. The two most closely related to these requirements concern the pupils' access to the library and the possible installation of subsidiary book collections in the classrooms.

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[9] *Biennial Survey of Education in United States*, chap. v. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1940. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940.

[10] *North Central Association Quarterly*, XV (April, 1941), 415–34.

In addition, questions of internal policy need determination, and standard library routines require adaptation to local needs. Finally, provision for a suitable school-library budget makes valid all the other planning.

1. Scheduling Devices

Various schemes of admission to the library are in use, some of which have a direct bearing upon its size or complexity. In elementary schools it is customary for teachers to bring whole classes at one time, according to a prearranged schedule. Should the school be large, it may be necessary for two groups to come simultaneously. If so, their accommodation is simpler if the library is constructed in a series of rooms, each one of which is large enough to serve a full class at one time. (Some added space is usually considered essential for seating self-reliant individuals who may be sent to work independently.) The schedule for library periods may be worked out from week to week, or may be made for a whole term. In either instance, both teacher and librarian plan it.

The junior high, the elementary school organized on the platoon basis, or any other organization using a library–study hall may develop a definite pattern for the entire school program. The librarian will then have little to do beyond reporting possible conflicts. Here again the methods of scheduling and assigning groups to the library are related to the capacity adequate for library service.

In schools where pupils are not scheduled, but are free to visit the library as they wish, there is no one standard method for admission. The tendency is to make the admission routine as simple as possible. This again is a reason for having the library adjoining or close to the study halls, for in such a position little supervision is needed. In the ultimate analysis, the school administrator determines the system when he decides the policy of pupil control to be used throughout the school. When he requires a strict accounting of all present during each period, a "permit" system is useful. Library passes or permits which can be checked against permanent seating plans in study halls will be needed for all transients, and hall passes will be required where corridor guards intercept wanderers. The librarian is then faced with definite clerical routines in harmony with those in use elsewhere to prevent the library from becoming a catch-all for the irresponsibles. A number of forms are in use but the individual identification slip for each visitor is the simplest. It can be checked and then kept on file long enough to settle any question that may arise concerning the pupil's whereabouts.

Where the attendance is taken only for recitation periods, the pupils will be as free to come and go as in a college library. Between these two extremes are varying degrees of control. The librarian may have need of limiting attendance where it tends to exceed the normal seating capacity. In that contingency, she may resort to the practice of reserving seats by distributing numbered permits for each period of the day. All these elements are local and can best be interpreted by individual schools.

An effort should be made where it is necessary to use permits to keep their form as simple as possible. Little is gained by having subject teachers countersign them. The easier it is to obtain permits the fewer will be the cases of discipline connected with their misuse. For those who waste their library time some limitation on attendance may be needed, but on the whole the pupil himself should learn to apportion his working time in an efficient manner. Where he refuses to take this responsibility, a rule can be developed to fit the individual case. When the library is attractive and the materials in it are challenging to the interest, there will be little trouble in getting a fair cross-section of the school population in attendance every day. Any unusual crowding can be overcome by encouraging the pupils, where it is possible, to use less congested periods for their free reading.

Of the two methods, scheduling and free access, the latter seems more in harmony with the needs of the older groups, and the former, of the younger children.

2. The Classroom Library

The old classroom library consisted of a motley collection of books. It was seldom closely related to any specific curriculum. This type of class library, especially in the lower grades, has been supplemented for years by loans from local or county public libraries. Even with this enrichment the collection still stopped short of giving wholly adequate service for want of intramural administration.

With the introduction of the school library either the classroom collections were abandoned or a system of branches was established as part of the central organization. The latter is probably the more progressive plan, and the one having a direct influence upon the physical specifications of the central library. This plan is more likely to be found in elementary schools, in systems having socialized class activities, or in schools using double periods. Where the pupil satisfies part of his book needs in the class he goes less frequently to the central library during the

school day, and less space is likely to be needed for the accommodation of the student body.

The system has further implications in terms of the book resources. Even when teachers and librarians carefully schedule units to avoid conflicts, more book duplication is necessary under this plan than when the pupils do all their studying in the library itself. This is particularly true of general titles used for several activities. One copy will be accessible to all groups if kept in the library, but duplicates will be needed for circulation through classroom collections. Increasing the number of copies will at the same time require more shelf space to accommodate the shifting flow of books coming from or going to the classes. The shelving will need to be estimated with this in mind.

The use of classroom collections implies the organization of satisfactory lending routines. The way in which the books are to be used within the group determines the methods adopted. Should the books be borrowed only for class use, they can be charged the same as any other circulating books. Should the teacher loan the books for home use, a double card system is needed. One card is used for the usual library record, and the other, usually of a different color, is placed in the book for the teacher to use in a similar manner.

A small school may find a classroom system too expensive because of the necessary duplication it implies. If so, such a school may find it practical to initiate a system of period loans, in which the teacher borrows the books only for the period of his class and returns them for use in the library the rest of the day. (If he should have two or more sections, the library use of the books can be staggered to conform with use in the classroom through mutual agreement.) The routines for this plan can be developed with a minimum of record-keeping.

It is well to determine in advance some policy regarding possible book losses in classroom collections. To ignore such losses entirely often leads to further carelessness, but to hold the teacher financially responsible for their safety works undue hardship and discourages their use.

The classroom library provides a means for supplying groups of pupils with appropriate subject matter. It is more fluid than the previous isolated collections because it permits frequent regrouping of the total book resources to meet the varied needs of the classroom. Where it may lessen the individual's demand upon the central collection, it succeeds in bringing books directly to the attention of pupils not likely to use the central

library. When it harmonizes with the teaching philosophy of the school and its financial budget, the plan is both possible and desirable.

3. Routines

It is easy to throw routine practices out of their true perspective either by ignoring or overstressing their value. They are vitally important to library outcomes, but many librarians could probably simplify their organization to advantage. Sometimes an impersonal appraisal of methods or processes will reveal time-consuming procedures. Each activity should be functional to the extent of being vital to good service. Miss Crookston has recently completed a study of unit costs of various processes used in high-school libraries.[11] This research may also be helpful in determining the material value of various processes and of the demands made upon the librarian's time, as well as in illustrating many points of technical interest only to librarians.

No space will be given to specific technical processes since they have been described in several textbooks prepared for school librarians.[12]

Actual records which are kept should be based upon school needs. They should include all items essential for school reports to the local or county superintendent; to the regional accrediting agency, in the case of high schools; or to the state and federal offices. The American Library Association and the United States Office of Education have been making plans for uniform school-library records, of which more will probably be heard later. The records, at present, need not be elaborate, but they should represent adequate, objective evidence of school-library activities.

4. The Budget

The question of school-library finances is both challenging and disheartening to anyone trying to discover what is really adequate support for libraries of various types. Many complex factors are involved which

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[11] M. E. Crookston, *Unit Costs in a Selected Group of High-School Libraries.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 11, 1941. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942.

[12] M. T. P. Douglas, *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1941; L. F. Fargo, *The Library in the School.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1939 (third edition); Jewel Gardiner and L. B. Baisden, *Administering School Library Service in the Elementary School.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1941; Martha Wilson, *School Library Management.* New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1939 (sixth edition).

influence the ultimate measure of the dollar's efficiency, such as the school's ability to borrow supplementary resources, the book facilities in the homes of the children using the library, the distance from book markets which governs delivery costs in many instances, the liberality of the school in furnishing standard supplies, additional school furniture, etc.

Although the budgetary needs of the school library have been specifically recognized in the evaluative criteria of the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards, no specific financial statistics collected from the two hundred schools examined were sufficiently complete to provide for a study of all items on the school-library budget.[13]

Various regional accrediting agencies publish figures from time to time on the basis of the annual reports of member schools. When available, the library expenditures tend to be given only in general totals for schools grouped by their enrolment, as those in a recent North Central Association report.[14] This organization has recently gathered opinions of its members concerning adequate, minimum expenditures for books and periodicals. The amounts recommended varied with the size of the enrolment from 92 cents per pupil in schools under two hundred to 39 cents for those over one thousand in attendance.[15] The official files would probably supply much more data but these figures are not readily available to the average librarian.

The Office of Education in its *Biennial Survey of Education* breaks down the figures to some extent, but never fully enough to separate the schools by types, nor even to isolate an individual school within a given city. State school library supervisors issue reports which include certain figures, but the librarian seeking a complete statement of the problem must wait for some financial survey to be issued or for some possible research on the subject to be made available. Meanwhile there are certain apparent tendencies and various problems requiring consideration.

The most important of these comes from a general misunderstanding of library needs. If, for instance, a general item under instructional materials includes textbooks, library books, and periodicals, it requires further subdivision to show what per cent of the amount is planned for each item, or textbooks might easily absorb the whole amount before the other items

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[13] Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards, *op. cit.*

[14] *Op. cit.*, pp. 415–34.

[15] W. E. McVey, "Report of Referendum on High School Libraries," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVI (October, 1941), 208–10.

are given consideration. Another difficulty arises where the school requisition blanks make no provision for specialized supplies. Where this happens, a special item may need to be included in the budget to provide for the purchase of cataloging supplies or government documents. Sometimes the misunderstanding may result from a difference in custom. The school spends its funds in anticipation of a need where the library often finds it more economical to buy when the need arises. Because of this the librarian finds it better policy to buy the year's supply of books at intervals during the year, rather than in one or two large orders. Again, the funds may be limited to the purchase of books only and no money may be available for ephemeral or visual materials. The rebinding of books at intervals rather than only once a year varies in accordance with actual needs. (Unless books can be bound and quickly put into use as needed, wider duplication of titles will be required.) The question of the school-library budget is not alone one of adequate funds properly apportioned to various activities but of having the funds available at moments of greatest library need.

The school librarian constructs a budget to meet item by item the various school-library needs, but these figures will eventually be amalgamated with those of all other school departments. Care should be taken that each item is carefully defined and its financial classification made clear to those not familiar with library needs. In cases where misunderstandings might easily arise, a brief note of explanation may be added. At the present time, effective financial management is one of the most vital problems in the school-library field.

IV. Summary

From the creation of the first blue print for a projected school library to the spending of the last budgeted dollar, the internal organization requires thoughtful administration. It is not enough to accept any plan for a library, any system of control, or any routines commonly employed, without first testing each one for its fitness to the local need.

General practice shows that school-library units are of two types. One provides a separate library activity functioning in harmony with other study centers. The other provides a joint scheme by which the study hall and the library become an educational entity capable of creating a new atmosphere of socialized rather than of monitorial study.

The actual size and equipment of either organization can be estimated on the basis of the number of pupils free at any hour to profit from such

facilities. Further, there are recommended specifications for average needs which can be brought into harmony with individual requirements, as well as a volume of literature on the experiences of others in similar undertakings.

The initial organization is further conditioned by the philosophy of the school, its administrative policies for control, and other activities influencing attendance. An example of these conditioning factors is the routine governing the possible use of books in the classrooms, both when the collection is generously expansive and when it is limited. Another concerns the various devices for the transfer of pupils from one area to another without interrupting any possible systems of student control which are already in operation.

In the foregoing discussion, routines, as specific mechanical processes, have been omitted, but the principles on which they function have been examined for their simplicity, appropriateness, and power to attain the desired ends.

Finally the budget itself has been considered, not so much as a series of percentages to be placed under suitable headings, but as a group of administrative factors needing clarification as to their purpose, their traditional use, and their functional efficiency. At present, librarians need to depend upon their good sense to supplement the incomplete data available on what is being done in general with the school-library budget. Where this type of school-library investigation has been thoughtfully considered, the school administrator and the librarian will find themselves better able to discuss the educational implications of the internal organization and administration of the school library.

CHAPTER XIV

THE APPLICATION OF SCHOOL-LIBRARY STANDARDS

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I. INTRODUCTION

School-library standards are only a section of the larger field, educational standards, and are part and parcel of the whole question of standardization. Any discussion of standards for school libraries should begin with a brief consideration of the two kinds of standards, quantitative and qualitative, and the recently devised substitute for standards, the evaluative criteria. Historically and practically, quantitative standards prepare the way for qualitative ones, and both precede the application of the criteria.

Quantitative standards attempt to set up numerical measurements and detailed requirements for all aspects of the school library. They are inflexible and have a tendency to restrict and limit library growth because they are often interpreted as maximum rather than minimum requirements. However, quantitative standards have their place in the development of school libraries. They act as a guide and set out a concrete program or pattern for the development of satisfactory school-library service. Standards expressed in numerical quantities and specific regulations supply the necessary framework around which the library may be organized. Such standards help improve the physical conditions of the school library, and the chances for adequate library service are greater if the physical aspects of the library are satisfactory. Because they are stated in numerical terms, quantitative standards are easier to comply with and easier to enforce.

Qualitative standards attempt to express, in functional terms, the same ideal requirements as quantitative standards. They encourage library service that is adequate for each school expressed in terms of its own needs. Because qualitative standards are not stated in exact quantities or amounts of service, they are less satisfactory as guides for the or-

ganization of school libraries. This lack of exactness makes them as difficult to enforce as to follow. On the other hand, they are flexible and may be applied to all types of school libraries with equal effectiveness. Qualitative standards permit appraisal of the library by persons familiar with its aims and objectives.

Evaluative criteria consist of a series of statements about the school library stressing the relationship of library service to the needs of the school. They express satisfactory or ideal service and constitute a goal toward which school libraries may strive. They are sufficiently broad in scope to cover all contingencies and to apply to all libraries regardless of type or size. Only those criteria that apply to a particular school library are checked as the school evaluates itself.

School-library standards have as their basic function the improvement of library facilities in the school. Their purpose is to suggest a program for immediate betterment of the library and to present a picture of ideal library service as a goal for further development.

II. Brief History of School-Library Standards

The deplorable condition of school libraries was brought to light by a nation-wide survey of the teaching of high-school English undertaken by a committee of the National Council of Teachers of English in 1915. The library was studied as an adjunct to the English work of the school, but the conditions disclosed were so unsatisfactory that the committee recommended a thorough investigation of the library as a distinct and separate unit of the educational system. The National Education Association decided to study the school library and appointed a committee for this purpose at its meeting in 1915. The committee was composed of outstanding librarians and schoolmen and was instructed to bring in a report that might be expressed in the form of standards for the organization and maintenance of school libraries. Mr. C. C. Certain was chairman and took a leading part in the survey.

The committee worked for three years, collecting data relating to actual conditions in school libraries and formulating standards to improve conditions. The report in its final form, "Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes,"[1] known in-

[1] The full report was printed in the *Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1918*, pp. 695–714; in *Education Administration and Supervision*, III (June, 1917), 317–38; and by the American Library Association in 1918.

formally as the Certain Report or the Certain Standards, was presented to the National Education Association at its annual meeting in 1918. It was adopted then as the Association's official standard for high-school library development and was approved by the education committee of the American Library Association.

Mr. Certain said that the report "represented actually a consensus of what, in the minds of high-school principals and librarians, the library should mean to the school."[2] Miss Mabel Williams wrote, "It is unnecessary to say that all reports of this nature must be revised constantly, but such a careful survey is an excellent foundation for future development."[3] For more than twenty years the Certain Standards, with modifications, were the basis of all school-library standards.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools adopted the Certain Report as its official school-library standards in 1918 and continued to use it for a dozen years. Some dissatisfaction arose as to its general efficacy and a qualitative supplement to it was accepted by the Association in 1932. Dissatisfaction with quantitative standards continued, however, and in March, 1939, the North Central Association replaced the Certain Standards and supplement with qualitative standards. These are much less specific and more adjustable to the highly developed needs of the schools in that area.

The accrediting association of the Middle Atlantic region, the Middle States Association, established a Commission on Secondary Schools in 1920. This commission drew up standards which included the library in the statement, ". . . . library facilities shall be adequate to the needs of instruction."[4] In 1938 the Association approved the gradual substitution of the evaluative criteria of the Co-operative Study for the existing standards. This transition period will terminate January 1, 1945, but until that time the present standards will continue to operate.

School-library development came later in the South than in the areas under the jurisdiction of the North Central and Middle States associations. In 1926 the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary

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[2] C. C. Certain, "High-School Library Standards," *Department of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, XLV (March, 1933), 78.

[3] Mabel Williams, "Mr. Certain's Report Seen from Two Points of View," *Library Journal*, XLIII (September, 1918), 682.

[4] Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Commission on Secondary Schools, *Bulletin of Information*, 1941.

Schools, in response to a proposal made by a committee of the Southeastern Library Association to inaugurate a program of library development in the South, appointed a committee to draw up tentative standards for high-school libraries and to present them at the meeting of the Southern Association in 1927. There the standards were offered, discussed, and adopted. They were similar to the Certain Standards in principle but were more succinct, more specific in many of the requirements, and not quite so difficult to attain. Schools were allowed a reasonable number of years in which to comply with them. Since 1936 the Association has been enforcing the library standards and encouraging states in the southern region to establish similar standards for their own schools. Dr. Louis R. Wilson was chairman of the Committee of the Southeastern Library Association, and Dr. J. Henry Highsmith has been chairman of the Library Committee of the Southern Association since 1926 and has been highly instrumental in influencing school-library development in the South.

In the far Northwest the establishment of school-library standards came still later. The Northwest Association at its 1928 meeting appointed a committee, with Miss Mary R. Bacon as chairman, to draw up standards and present them for the approval of the Association. After several years of study and conferences, the committee reported a set of standards that was adopted in April, 1935, as the official standards of the Northwest Association. These were based on the school-library standards of the Southern Association and the revised standards of the North Central Association.

Because of the emphasis placed on the school library through the adoption of standards by regional associations, the departments of public instruction of many states established standards for evaluating the libraries of their state-accredited high schools. These followed the general plan and principles of the Certain Report and its successors, with variations dictated by local conditions.

As school libraries increased in number and strength they began to chafe under the limitations of quantitative standards. A growing dissatisfaction with existing standards permeated the whole educational fabric, and in 1929 the accrediting associations realized that the system of standardization needed investigation. At that time the United States Office of Education was conducting a survey of secondary education[5] and

[5] Leonard V. Koos, *National Survey of Secondary Education.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1932.

the associations decided to await the result of this study before attacking the problem of standardization. Finally in August, 1933, the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards was organized, with each regional association taking part in the arrangements and contributing to the expenses. They were assisted in financing the study by a generous grant from the General Education Board. The purpose of the study was expressed in the following statement:

> Quantity is even today of great importance but quality is of still greater importance. It may be that a good quality of production is possible without the necessity of meeting all of the carefully developed, specially prescribed, quantitative measures. To find the measure of quality is the first and most important reason for launching the study.[6]

The library in the school was not treated as a separate unit in the study but was included as an item in the several areas that were differentiated. One section of the report was on "Library Service," but it did not cover the whole structure or function of the school library. This was consonant with the basic philosophy adopted by the Co-operative Study:

> [The school] must be studied and evaluated in its setting . . . . and it must be judged as a whole, not merely as the sum of its separate parts . . . . and that library development and service, if fully functioning, should be so closely related to all divisions of the schools' organization and activities that they cannot be satisfactorily studied by themselves.[7]

However, interest in all aspects of the library was so great and the demand from librarians for a single volume on the school library was so insistent that all material relating to the library in the school was assembled and printed in one pamphlet. The American Library Association was instrumental in the publication of this pamphlet and sponsored it jointly with the Co-operative Study.[8]

The areas covered by the Co-operative Study are, in general, those of the old standards, but they have been freed from minute detail and exact specifications. The standards were replaced by the evaluative criteria,

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[6] George Carrothers, "What Constitutes a Good Secondary School and by What Standards Should It Be Evaluated?" *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, 1934, p. 506. Washington: National Education Association, 1934.

[7] Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards Committee, *Evaluation of Secondary Schools*, pp. 91–92. Washington: The Committee (744 Jackson Place), 1939.

[8] *Ibid.*

which are made up of a series of statements of worth-while achievement and descriptions of acceptable library service. The school is evaluated in terms of these statements.

As the criteria are drawn up, each section may be scored numerically and then translated into graphic form in a series of thermometers that show the "educational temperature" of the library. This has been done for two hundred experimental schools and the "educational temperature" of the median school has been published. By the use of these thermometers any school may determine the status of its library in relation to that of other school libraries of the same type, size, or region. An annual check of the evaluative criteria will determine the "educational temperature" of the library and will provide a means by which its progress may be recorded. The use of such a procedure, with its system of visual presentation, permits a school library to check itself against the previous scores and thus to gauge the degree of its growth from year to year.

III. Main Provisions of Existing School-Library Standards

In order to understand fully the present accrediting situation in regard to school libraries, it is necessary to analyze the standards in operation today by regional and state agencies on the three levels of general education: elementary, secondary, and junior college.

1. Secondary-School Library Standards of Regional Accrediting Agencies

The function of the six regional educational associations in the United States is to improve the status of education within each area and to maintain standards for accrediting the member schools. Two of these, the New England Association and the Western Association, are not accrediting agencies, and, therefore, do not have school-library standards. The other four have established standards for secondary schools which include provision for accrediting the library. The Southern Association and the Northwest Association standards are quantitative, the Middle States Association is in the process of changing to the evaluative criteria of the Co-operative Study, and the North Central Association has qualitative standards. Although their standards apply only to member schools, they affect the general educational program of the several states represented in the associations.

Regardless of the type of standard enforced by the accrediting agencies, all have certain features in common. All four have provisions relat-

ing to the librarian and the book collection and three of them include as items of primary importance provisions concerning the appropriation, the library room, and the organization. Other sections cover the equipment, the instruction in library use, and the functioning of the library. The Southern Association standards require a course of twelve lessons on library use and allow equivalents for library books and services provided by public library units.

The influence of the regional associations on the states represented in their membership has been pronounced. Where a strong school-library policy has been maintained by an accrediting agency, the states tend to recognize the value of school libraries and establish standards to develop them; where there is no accrediting policy the states have not formulated standards. The Southern Association has emphasized the development of school libraries in the South and, as a result of its activities, every state in the Southern Association area has state school library standards today. It is the only region where this has been achieved. Table I summarizes the standards of the four associations.

2. Secondary-School Library Standards of the States[9]

Practically all of the states recognize the importance of the library in the school and have established some means by which its efficiency may be measured. Eleven states have no school-library standards, eight have report blanks, certificate credentials, or other statements which act as a guide for school-library development, and thirty-one have formulated definite standards. These requirements are summarized in Table II.

Most of the standards set up by the states to accredit their own schools are quantitative. There is usually a lag between educational movements and laws and regulations that implement them, and this is exemplified in state school library standards. Only a few states have substituted the evaluative criteria or qualitative standards for the old quantitative ones. Maryland is changing to the evaluative criteria, South Dakota quotes them as a foreword to its quantitative standards, New York is urging its schools to evaluate themselves by the criteria, and Alabama, Arkansas, Illinois, Maine, and Montana have a very general qualitative statement of standards. The standards of the other states are more or less detailed and set forth exact requirements in elaborate specifications. They follow

[9] Source of information: Communications from the departments of public instruction of the states in January, 1942.

TABLE I.—SUMMARY OF HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY STANDARDS OF FOUR ACCREDITING ASSOCIATIONS[a]

Association	Librarian	Books and Periodicals	Appropriation	Rooms and Equipment	Organization	Miscellaneous
Middle States Association[b]	A well-educated, properly qualified, efficient librarian	Books and periodicals to supply the needs for reference, cultural, and inspirational reading	Budget which provides adequately for the maintenance and improvement of the library		Provision for keeping all materials fully cataloged and well organized	Emphasis upon formation of reading ing habits and enjoyment of books
North Central Association	A properly qualified librarian; 400–800 pupils: either a teacher-librarian or a librarian, at least 8 hrs. library science; 800 pupils and over: full-time librarian, 1 yr. professional training; librarian a member of the faculty	Number and kind of books, reference materials, and magazines adequate for number of pupils enrolled; meet interests of the pupils and needs of instruction in all courses offered		Easily accessible to students; adequate in size; attractive in appearance	Cataloged; classified	
Northwest Association	Part-time, teacher-librarian with technical training for less than 1000 pupils; proper allowance for library aid	50 pupils: 15 vols. per pupil; 50–150 pupils: 10 vols.; 150–300 pupils: 7 vols.; 300 or more pupils: 5 vols. per pupil; use *Standard Catalog;* distribution; proportional expansion in standard current magazines	At least $200 per yr. for books and periodicals or 75 cents per pupil according to local conditions	Ample room for recreational reading and study		
Southern Association	Teacher-librarian, 6 hrs. library science for 100 or less pupils; 100–200 pupils: half-time, 24–30 hrs. library science or college graduation and 12 hrs. library science; 200 pupils and over: full-time librarian; additional full-time librarian for every 1000 pupils or major fraction enrolled	100 or fewer pupils: 500 well-selected books, 2 newspapers, 5–10 periodicals; 100–200 pupils; 500–1000 books, newspapers, 5–15 periodicals; 200–500 pupils: 1000–2500 books, newspapers, 15–30 periodicals; 500–1000 pupils: 2500–5000 books, newspapers, 25–50 periodicals; over 1000 pupils: 5000 or more books, newspapers, 40 or more periodicals	500 or fewer pupils: $1 per pupil; 500 or over: 75 cents per pupil, annually, for books and periodicals	200 and fewer pupils: separate classroom or end of study hall, tables, chairs, shelving; 200 and over: separate library, standard equipment; workroom; conference room	100 or fewer pupils: adequate shelf list; loan system; card catalog; accession record	12 lessons on the use of the library for all schools

[a] Source of information: Letters, bulletins, circulars of information from the associations in January, 1942.

[b] This association is changing to the Evaluative Criteria of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards; to be effective January 1, 1945.

TABLE II.—SUMMARY OF HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY STANDARDS OF THE STATES[a]

State[b]	Librarian	Books and Periodicals	Appropriation	Room and Equipment	Organization	Miscellaneous
Alabama		Minimum, 300; gives number of books in each class		Room adjoining study hall	Dewey classification; accession record; inventory; loans	
Arizona		Number must be adequate	Adequate provision	Easily accessible		
Arkansas		At least 500 books, 1 newspaper, 6 periodicals		Convenient; may be study hall	Properly classified	
Florida	Part-time in schools of less than 11 teachers; full-time, full-trained if 12 or more teachers	Minimum, 400	Not less than 25 cents per pupil		Cataloged	Library lessons
Georgia	Teacher-librarian, 12 hrs. library science for Group II schools; librarian with 30 hrs. library science	Minimum, 500; average of 7 books per pupil is recommended	Not less than 50 cents per pupil		Card index (catalog)	Library lessons; equivalents for public library service
Idaho		13 books per pupil in schools of 50 pupils; 4.5 in schools of 300 or more; *Standard Catalog*	3 per cent of annual appropriation	Shelving	Classified; cataloged	
Illinois	Teacher-librarian in small schools; one-half yr. library science 200–300 pupils; 1 yr., 500 or more	Number and kind adequate		Adequate in size; accessible; attractive	Classified; cataloged	
Indiana	Full-time, 24 hrs. library science; half-time, teacher-librarian, 16 hrs. or 6 wks. training	Required reference material; supplementary reading; 3–6 vols. per pupil	Specific amount; 50 cents to $1 per pupil	Seat 15–35 per cent of students; may use study hall, but, if so, must have teacher besides librarian	Classified; cataloged; shelf list; accession record; loans	6 library lessons; equivalents for public library service

[a] Source of information: Communications from the Departments of Public Instruction of the States in January, 1942.

[b] States without standards, but having certificate requirements for librarians: California, Connecticut, Maryland, Wisconsin. States without standards or certificate requirements: Colorado, Delaware, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nebraska, New Hampshire, Nevada, Rhode Island, Vermont, Wyoming.

TABLE II
(*Continued*)

State	Librarian	Books and Periodicals	Appropriation	Room and Equipment	Organization	Miscellaneous
Iowa	Teacher-librarian, at least 6 wks. library science; full-time, 1 yr. library science, large school	Recreational reading, minimum, 100; 1 book added for each pupil above 100; collateral, 1 book for each pupil in class	Minimum, $100; 75 cents per pupil per year	Accessible; may be study hall	Dewey classification	
Kentucky	Full-time, 1 yr. training, schools of 500 or more pupils	Minimum, 500; 5 vols. per pupil; *Standard Catalog*	$1 per pupil	Satisfactorily located	Shelf list; accession record; inventory; loans; classified; cataloged; statistics	Library lessons; evidence of use; co-operate with library agencies
Louisiana	200 or less: part-time librarian, 3–6 hrs. library science; 200 or more: full-time, 12–15 hrs. library science	Minimum, 500; 5 books per pupil; selected from lists; percentage in each class designated; 5–50 periodicals	Minimum, $50; 50 cents per pupil	Separate room; seat 10 per cent of pupils; workroom; conference room; standard equipment	Accession record; catalog; loans; classified	Open all day; 6 library lessons; 9–12 in large schools
Maine	Trained librarian or teacher-librarian	Adequate reference books; supplementary books; periodicals; newspapers	Minimum, $75; $1.50 per pupil	May combine study hall		Librarian at least 1 hr. per day in library
Minnesota	Part-time in schools 5–24 teachers; half-time, 25–49 teachers; full-time, 50 or more teachers	Adequate working library	$1 per pupil; contract with public library	Detailed specifications; size; furniture	Classified; cataloged	Library lessons; equivalents for public library service
Mississippi	Teacher-librarian, 100 pupils or fewer, 6 hrs. library science; 100–200: 12 hrs. library science; 200 or more: 1 yr.; assistants	Minimum, 400; selected from lists; 4 vols. per pupil in schools 100 or more; minimum, 5 magazines; 1 good newspaper	75 cents per pupil per year	Seat 30 per cent of pupils; study hall; workroom; conference room; standard equipment	Accession record; Dewey classification; shelf list; inventory; catalog if half-time librarian	10 library lessons
Missouri	Part-time in schools under 500 pupils; full-time over 500	Minimum, 300; average 3 books per pupil; periodicals	70 cents per pupil under 150; 50 cents over 150	Seat 10 per cent of pupils; shelving for 5 years' growth	Accession record; catalog; classified; loans	Function; use by pupils and teachers
Montana		Number and kind most adequate		Easily accessible	Cataloged; classified	
New Jersey	Teacher-librarian in small schools; full-time, trained librarian in large schools	Minimum, 500	$1 per pupil per year; $3,000 should be allowed to establish new school library	Seat 10 per cent of pupils; workroom	Accession record; shelf list; catalog; classification; loan system	Books and librarian from public library allowed; 12 library lessons

TABLE II
(*Continued*)

State	Librarian	Books and Periodicals	Appropriation	Room and Equipment	Organization	Miscellaneous
New Mexico	Part-time in schools under 350 pupils, 6–15 hrs. library science; full-time, trained in schools over 350; assistant for every 1000 enrolment	Minimum, 500; 5 books per pupil; periodicals; newspapers; selected from standard lists	$1 per pupil up to 2500 enrolment; 75 cents above 2500; after collection of 5 books per pupil, 75 cents is required	Room or study hall seating 10 per cent of pupils; over 500 pupils, workroom, counsel-room	Cataloged; shelf list; loan system	
New York	Part-time, 1 yr. cert. for less than 300 pupils; half-time, 1 yr. cert., 300–700; full-time, 5 yr. cert. over 700	Less than 200 pupils: 500–1000 titles; to 500 pupils: 3000 titles; 1000 pupils: 5000 titles, 5 books per pupil	$1 per pupil			
North Carolina	Teacher-librarian, 6 hrs. library science in schools of 6–8 teachers; 12 hrs. library science, 9–12 teachers; full-time over 12 teachers	Minimum, 300; average 3 books per pupil in schools over 100 pupils; selected from lists; 5–20 periodicals; good daily newspapers		Seat 10 per cent of pupils; workroom; standard equipment	Accession record; classified; shelf list; loan record; catalog in schools with half-time librarian	Open all day; 10 library lessons
North Dakota	Teacher-librarian, 4 hrs. library science, schools 100 or less; 6 hrs. 100–200 pupils; 8 hrs. 200–500 pupils; full-time 16–20 hrs., 500–1000; full-time, fully trained over 1000 pupils	10 vols. per pupil less than 100 pupils; 100–1000 pupils: 1000–3000 vols.; newspapers; 4 good magazines	75 cents per pupil per year	Seat 10 per cent of pupils; standard equipment	Dewey classification; catalog; accession record	Not to be used as a study hall
Ohio	Teacher-librarian, 6 hrs. library science; 250–500 pupils: half-time librarian, 12 hrs.; over 500: full-time	Selected from lists; teachers' professional books	Minimum, $100 for 250 pupils; 50 cents per pupil	Study hall; seat 10 per cent of pupils; attractive	Classified; catalog	Library lessons; evaluation of the library
Oklahoma	Certificate	Approved encyclopedia and dictionary; 24 books for English class; 8 for history, agriculture; 3 for languages			Dewey classification	
Oregon	Part-time librarian, 6 wks. library science; 1000 or more pupils: full-time	500 books and 5–10 periodicals to 5000 books and 25–30 periodicals; 75 per cent from state list	$1 per pupil, 500 pupils or less; over 500 pupils 75 cents	Under 200 pupils, study hall; seat 10 per cent of pupils; workroom; standard equipment	Accession record; shelf list; loans; catalog	

TABLE II

(*Continued*)

State	Librarian	Books and Periodicals	Appropriation	Room and Equipment	Organization	Miscellaneous
Pennsylvania	Teacher-librarian, 50–500 pupils; over 500, full-time	Minimum, 200; 4–30 periodicals; newspapers	$1 per pupil first 500; 75 cents, 500–1000; 50 cents over 1000	Seat 10–15 per cent of pupils	Shelf list; loans; catalog; pamphlet file; Dewey classification	Library lessons; co-operate with library agenices
South Carolina	Teacher-librarian, 6 hrs. library science in schools under 100 pupils to full-time, 24–30 hrs. library science in schools over 400	Minimum, 500; maximum, 5000; 5 books per pupil; 5–10 to 20 periodicals; *Readers Guide;* newspapers	$1 per pupil first 300; 75 cents, 300–600; 50 cents over 600	Special room or study hall; standard equipment	Accession record; shelf list; loans; catalog	6 library lessons; function of the library
South Dakota	Well educated; efficient	Minimum, 500; 24 added annually for English; 3 in science; 6–10 periodicals	$1 per pupil; minimum, $75		Catalog	*Evaluative Criteria of Co-operative Study;* co-operate with library agencies
Tennessee	Half-time librarian, 10 hrs. library science for 200 pupils; full-time, 20 hrs. for over 200 pupils	Minimum, 500; 4 books per pupil; selected from lists	75 cents per pupil up to 200 pupils; 50 cents over 200 pupils	Seat 10 per cent of pupils; standard equipment	Dewey classification; loans; accession record; catalog; vertical file	Library lessons; public library supervision
Texas	12 hrs. library science; assistant, 6 hrs.; college degree required	$400 worth of well-chosen books		All necessary equipment	Dewey classification; catalog	12 lessons in the use of the library
Utah	Less than 1000 pupils: part-time; over 1000: full-time	5 vols. per pupil, 300 or more pupils; 15 vols. in schools with fewer than 50 pupils	Minimum, $200; 75 cents per pupil	Room for recreational reading and study		
Virginia	Teacher-librarian less than 200 pupils; full-time, 30 hrs. library science, more than 200 pupils	Minimum, 500; 5 vols. per pupil; approved lists; newspaper; 5–40 periodicals	50 cents per pupil, not including state aid	Seat 15 per cent of pupils; standard equipment	Shelf list; accession record; classified; catalog	12 library lessons
Washington (junior high school)	Teacher-librarian; 500 or more: trained librarian	Minimum, 100; average 2 vols. per pupil; selected from approved lists; 4 periodicals, 20–25 in schools of 600–1000	$25; over 200 pupils, 25 cents per pupil	Seat 10 per cent of pupils	Classified, accession record; shelf list	Open all day
West Virginia		8 vols. per pupil up to 250 pupils; 4 per pupil over 1000; 12 periodicals; at least 1 newspaper				

the rather typical pattern set by the Certain Report and continued in the standards of the regional associations.

Thirty-three states designate minimum requirements for books; thirty have specifications for the librarian's training and experience; twenty-eight include some form of organization, usually that the library be classified and cataloged; twenty-seven determine the size of the library, or its location, or its equipment; and twenty-five make definite statements concerning the appropriation that should be made for the support of the school library. Among the miscellaneous items, fifteen states require instruction in library use, eight expect the library to be open all day under supervision, five allow for equivalent services from municipal or county libraries, and four have provisions for evaluating the library according to its functioning.

A review of the various sections of the state standards describes their general trend and indicates the differences that distinguish them.

a. Books and Periodicals. The requirements for books, periodicals, and newspapers range from the very simple statement of "number and kind adequate" to an intricate classification of schools by size, with book proportion, distribution, and selection based on enrolment groups. Eleven states require a minimum of 500 books, seven mention an average of five books per pupil. Oklahoma and South Dakota phrase their requirements in terms of subject matter taught, Tennessee in terms of average daily attendance, and all other states in terms of enrolment. The standards of fifteen states specify book lists from which library books must be selected. Even the most quantitative, detailed standards show the qualitative influence by prefacing their book requirements with such statements as "well selected," "adequate," "meeting the needs of the curriculum," "approved," or "fitting the age and interests of the pupils."

Seventeen of the standards provide for the periodical equipment of the school library. Daily papers and Sunday editions of metropolitan papers are required by ten of the states.

The book and periodical section of the standards varies considerably, but all attempt to provide a collection of books and magazines that will enrich the curriculum of the school and supply the recreational reading of the pupils.

b. Librarian. The requirements for the librarian are more uniform than those for books. Most of them allow a teacher-librarian, or part-time librarian, in the small school and require a full-time, fully trained librarian in the large school. The amount of training in library science

varies from six to eighteen semester hours for the part-time librarian to twenty-four to thirty semester hours for the full-time school librarian. The size which determines a small or large school is not constant; an enrolment between 300 and 600 is mentioned most frequently as the dividing line. All standards provide for clerical help and an additional professional assistant as the school enrolment exceeds 1,000 pupils. The requirements for the librarian, as for books, depend, in most standards, upon the size of the school measured in terms of enrolment. Florida, Minnesota, and North Carolina classify their schools according to the number of teachers, and Tennessee, according to average daily attendance.

c. Organization. Almost without exception the standards call for shelf list, card catalog, card loan system, accession record, books classified by the Dewey decimal classification system, and other standard library records. Occasionally such additional statements as "the library must be properly cared for," "must establish and maintain service adequate to meet its needs," and "materials fully cataloged and well organized" are found in the standards.

d. Rooms and Equipment. Several features appear in nearly all of the housing sections of the standards: the library room should be adequate in size, it should be in or near the study hall, and it should contain standard library equipment. Eleven standards require that the library room be large enough to seat 10 per cent of the student body at one time. Variations are found in Mississippi with the requirement of a seating capacity of 30 per cent, in Indiana with 15 to 35 per cent, in Virginia with 15 per cent, in Pennsylvania with 10 to 15 per cent, and in Missouri with 5 to 10 per cent. Workrooms and conference rooms for teachers and students are recommended as the enrolment of the school increases.

The second feature brings up the problem of the library–study hall combination. The standards of eleven states recommend the combination for small schools but require separate rooms in the large schools. North Dakota is the only state whose standards forbid the use of the library as a study hall. The Indiana standards permit the location of the library in the study hall but require an additional teacher to take charge of the study-hall duties so that the librarian is freed for library work. All standards require that the library be accessible, and those of Illinois and Ohio add that the library should be attractive.

The third item covered by this section deals with the furnishings of

the library. The standards call for all essential pieces of equipment: tables, chairs, librarian's desk, shelving, catalog case, etc. Missouri requires enough shelving to take care of five years' growth. Many of the standards go into considerable detail, even including some specifications for equipment.

e. Appropriation. This section of the standards provides for the maintenance and support of the school library. The money appropriated under the standards must be spent only for books and periodicals, not for the librarian's salary. Twenty-four states require a per pupil appropriation that ranges from 50 cents to $1.50, according to the size of the school. Three standards specify a minimum fund of $100, three others require $200, $75, and $50, respectively. Nebraska allows $5 per teacher for books, and Idaho appropriates 3 per cent of the school budget for the library. New Jersey recommends an initial outlay of $3,000 for the organization of a new school library.

f. Miscellaneous Items. Hours when the library should be open are given in eight standards. This applies to small schools served by part-time librarians and provides that the library shall be kept open all day by student assistants under the supervision of the librarian. Large schools have full-time librarians who devote their entire working time to the library.

Lessons in the use of the library are required by fourteen state standards. These call for from six to twelve lessons taught by the librarian or integrated with the subject matter and taught by the teacher with help from the librarian.

Equivalents for service from municipal or county libraries are permitted by five states—Georgia, Indiana, Minnesota, New Jersey, and Tennessee. Books provided by public libraries and services of a trained librarian furnished by nonschool library units may be substituted for the requirements in certain sections of the standards. Kentucky, Pennsylvania, and South Dakota advise co-operating with all other library agencies.

The functioning, or use, of the school library is stressed in the standards of four states—Kentucky, Missouri, Ohio, and South Carolina. This functional requirement in quantitative standards indicates the extent to which the qualitative concept of school-library standards has been accepted by the states.

3. Elementary-School Library Standards[10]

Most standardization is at the secondary and higher levels of education. Accrediting agencies and colleges have been interested only in the products turned out by the high schools of the country because they affect very definitely the type of work done in higher institutions. State boards of public instruction, in turn, are interested in the elementary school as the training agency for the pupils who will be graduated into the high schools and contribute to the strength or weakness of the secondary-school systems. Therefore, since elementary-school standards are not related to general accreditation, they are established only by the states.

Ten states have formulated definite standards for the elementary-school library that are similar to those for the high schools. These states are Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, North Carolina, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Washington, and West Virginia. Sixteen other states have book requirements, certification credentials for librarians, or sections of score cards that substitute for standards. Nearly all states have annual report blanks that have a section devoted to library books. Most of the requirements for the elementary-school library are lower and much simpler than those for the secondary school. However, Indiana uses practically the same standards for both levels, and Kentucky requires that there be as many books available for elementary pupils as for high-school students and concludes its statement by saying, "The elementary school shall not be neglected in attempting to maintain high-school standards." A review of some of the items in the standards shows their main features.

a. Books and Reading. Supplementary readers are stressed for the first three grades with dictionaries, encyclopedias, general reading books, and magazines required for the upper grades. The book requirements are expressed as two, three, or six books per pupil; fifty books per teacher; at least seventy-five or one hundred books per school; and at least five dollars' worth of approved elementary books per teacher. Two standards suggest that children read at least ten books on their level per year.

b. Housing and Equipment. For classroom libraries, bookcases, cupboards, reading tables, and chairs are required; if a library room is possi-

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[10] Source of information: Communications from the departments of public instruction of the states in January, 1942.

ble, it should be equipped with regular library furniture in small sizes for the children.

c. Appropriation. Two of the standards recommended an annual appropriation but did not specify the amount; one states five dollars per teacher for books; and another requires 3 per cent of the school appropriation to go for books.

d. Miscellaneous. Lessons in the use of the library are required in three of the state standards, and co-operation with other library units is recommended by two.

Though standards for elementary-school libraries have not been established to the extent that they have for secondary schools, there is an ever increasing interest in library facilities for the grades. In consolidated schools the high-school librarian becomes the librarian for both the elementary and high school. In towns where the two levels are housed in separate buildings the secondary-school librarian often orders and prepares the books for the grade schools and supervises their library service. This interest in the elementary-school library is especially praiseworthy in view of the fact that it indicates a recognition of the value of the library at all levels of education and an attempt to establish it without pressure from accrediting agencies.

4. Junior-College Library Standards[11]

The junior college is a relatively new unit in the educational setup and has been stabilized, to a large extent, through accrediting procedures. It is accredited by regional educational associations, state departments of education, and state universities. The four accrediting associations and the New England Association have sections on the library in their junior-college standards. All standards except those of the Southern Association are very general.

In twenty-eight states there are formal junior-college standards established either by the department of education of the state or the state university, or both; in sixteen states there are no definite standards but some device is used to accredit the work of the junior college; and only four states—Delaware, Nevada, Rhode Island, and Wyoming—have no standards at all. There is a section dealing with the library in the standards of twenty-five of the twenty-eight states that have adopted standards. Five

[11] Reference used: Walter Crosby Eells (ed.), *American Junior College.* Washington: American Council on Education, 1940.

other states—Arkansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Oregon, and South Carolina—use the standards of the regional accrediting agency operating in their areas. Eighteen states have either no standards or the standards fail to mention the library.

A quick review of the library section of the twenty-five standards shows that six are phrased in general terms and that the other nineteen stress number of volumes and annual appropriation. The employment of a trained librarian is required by twelve standards, the seating capacity of the library and instruction in its use are mentioned in two, and provision for annual growth in number of books is recommended in one.

a. Books. The size of the book collection varies from 1,000 to 8,000 volumes, exclusive of government documents and periodicals. The two sizes most frequently mentioned were 2,500 and 3,000 volumes, each of which was given in five standards. North Carolina requires an addition of 250 volumes annually; the other standards imply an increase in the size of the book collection through the annual appropriation. Nebraska and Tennessee allow only 15 per cent for duplication.

b. Appropriation. An annual appropriation is specified in twenty-one of the standards, but the amount is expressed in various ways: from 50 cents to $5 per pupil; $250 to $800 minimum sum; and 3 per cent of the college educational budget.

c. Librarian. A professionally trained librarian may be implied in the term "effectively administered" library. No standard attempts to set up the exact training and experience for the librarian.

d. Miscellaneous. Size of the library: The library should accommodate from 15 to 20 per cent of the student body at one time, according to the standards of two states—Mississippi and Tennessee. Library lessons are also required in the standards of these two states.

IV. Trends in the Development of Standards

This analysis of standards for school libraries reveals certain definite trends. The practice of establishing library standards has been extensive. Regional and state educational agencies in all parts of the United States have formulated standards for the organization and maintenance of school libraries. The states of the South and Middle West have been particularly active in adopting measures for the guidance and accreditation of their school libraries.

The establishment and modification of standards is a continuing process. The North Central and Middle States associations have changed

their standards as the status of school libraries has improved. The states have modified their standards also and have attempted to harmonize them with the needs of the schools. The number of states that have formal standards for their school libraries is growing. New Mexico and Texas are the thirtieth and thirty-first states to adopt definite school-library standards.

There is a noticeable tendency to include qualitative expressions in the standards, despite the fact that most of them are quantitative. In prefatory remarks and introductory sections there are qualitative terms and general statements concerning library excellence. This qualitative trend reaches its apex in the evaluative criteria of the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards.

The standards show a striking resemblance in items included and requirements designated. Provision for books, annual appropriation, and the service of a trained librarian are found in practically all of them. Though each item has variations determined by local or state conditions, the requirements in general are very much alike. This similarity may be traceable to the fact that many of the standards are based on the Certain Report or on the regional association library standards which were, in turn, modeled after the Certain Standards.

The basis for the requirements in quantitative standards is the size of the school. This is expressed variously as enrolment, average daily attendance, or number of teachers, but in each case there is a numerical basis to determine the class of school. In qualitative standards, size is disregarded, and the function of the library becomes the basis for requirements.

V. Difficulties in Applying School-Library Standards

Though standards for school libraries have been adopted by regional accrediting agencies and state departments of education, many difficulties surround their application and enforcement. Some of these difficulties may be attributed to lack of knowledge of school libraries, others to lack of financial ability to comply with standards, and still others to the difficulties inherent in the standards themselves.

The greatest obstacle to the application of school-library standards is the lack of understanding of the value of school libraries on the part of school officials. The library in the school is a relatively new feature of the educational system. Only a few large city high schools had libraries at the beginning of the twentieth century, and in many schools even today

libraries are nonexistent or are in a primitive state of development. Some school officials and teachers have not been accustomed to the use of a library in their teaching and they do not know the contribution it can make to their work.

Another practical difficulty in applying school-library standards is the lack of financial and physical resources in many school systems. The establishment and maintenance of a school library according to standards require adequate housing space and financial support which local school units are not always able to provide. In many schools room space is at a premium, particularly in defense and army camp areas where schools are seriously overcrowded. School officials who are eager to develop library service are often balked in their attempt to comply with school-library standards because appropriations for the library cannot be made from available educational funds. Rural areas, small towns, sparsely settled communities, and regions that fall below the national economic average find it difficult to meet standards.

It has been impossible for all schools to meet the standards for trained librarians or teacher-librarians, because of the paucity of persons prepared to do school-library work. Not many teachers were equipped, through study or experience, to take over the organization of the library, and, among professionally trained librarians, relatively few have selected school-library work as their field of specialization. This difficulty becomes less important with the increasing number of trained librarians available for work in school libraries.

The nature of quantitative standards renders them difficult to apply uniformly to all school systems. Because schools differ in purpose, size, and organization, it is practically impossible to apply a universal measuring stick or single set of standards to them all. Some need a type of library service that exceeds that designated in the standards and others need only a minimum of library activity. The dogmatic application of standards may therefore result in an unfair evaluation and may lead to one of the following eventualities: the schools refuse to meet the standards and therefore are not accredited; the accrediting agencies overlook the fact that certain sections of the standards are being disregarded; the schools comply with the requirements, conscious that parts of them do not apply but realizing that they must do so in order to be accredited; or, the schools meet the minimum requirements of the standards and do nothing further to develop their libraries. The intelligent construction

and application of quantitative standards will adjust these difficulties without destroying the value of the standards.

One of the greatest objections to quantitative standards is the lack of assurance that the mere meeting of numerical requirements will lead to satisfactory school-library service. Books, seating capacity, money, and a librarian do not necessarily mean that the library will function adequately. Because of this fact some school officials have been unwilling to enforce the various requirements set out in the standards.

On the other hand, there are difficulties connected with the application of qualitative school-library standards. They are so indefinite in statement that school people unfamiliar with good school-library service are not able to follow their directions. A sense of uncertainty accompanies a school's attempt to meet qualitative standards and often results in a half-hearted compliance with them, or a complete disregard of them, or the necessity for the accrediting agencies to interpret them quantitatively. Representatives of accrediting associations charged with the enforcement of standards are not always school-library specialists and, therefore, are unable to estimate the extent to which a library meets qualitative standards. They must rely on reports of local school officials for this information and the validity of the reports will depend, to a great extent, on the attitude of the officials toward school libraries and the standards set up for their promotion.

Another difficulty in the application of standards is the necessity for their interpretation. Qualitative and quantitative standards alike have to be applied by human beings, and the personal element affects the result. Qualitative standards must be interpreted for almost every school in which they are applied and the evaluation will depend in part on the attitude of the person making the interpretation. Even the application of quantitative school-library standards does not guarantee a uniform library development. Some administrator's construe them as statements of maximum growth, others consider that they contain only minimum essentials. The library service resulting in response to these different concepts of quantitative standards will vary correspondingly.

VI. Some Results of School-Library Standards

Despite the difficulties faced by the schools in complying with library standards and by regional and state organizations in enforcing them, they have been in operation for a number of years and have contributed to the improvement of school libraries. The results are extremely hard to

measure objectively. There have been so many factors at work in the educational field that one dares not single out any one of them as completely responsible for the improved conditions in libraries. However, certain results may be cited as being directly or indirectly influenced by the application of standards.

The adoption of the first school-library standards initiated a spirited discussion of school libraries that has continued and increased up to the present. Professional educational and library literature has carried many articles discussing the library's value and reporting methods of its organization and administration. The programs of professional meetings are often devoted to a consideration of the contribution of the library to modern teaching. This interest in school libraries covers both elementary and secondary education.

Educators, unfamiliar with the school library before the establishment of library standards called it to their attention, began to study it and became convinced of its educational value. They have requested librarians of secondary-school libraries to organize and supervise library service in elementary schools in the same systems, even though there were no standards requiring service to the grades. Librarians of consolidated schools provide library experience for the children of the elementary part of the school. This awakening to the realization of the library's contribution has resulted in the extension of library service to areas where no objective standards are applied.

Even in states without formal library standards and for levels of education not controlled by them, their influence has been felt. Practically all state departments of education devote sections of their annual report blanks to the library. These usually include the items found in standards and indicate a widespread recognition of their basic significance.

When school-library standards were adopted by the various states, it became necessary to have someone who could assist the schools to develop libraries in accordance with the regulations. This meant the employment of school-library specialists in the state departments of education who could explain the standards to school people, visit the schools and direct the organization of the library, and inspect school libraries with intelligence to see whether they were complying with the stated and implied requirements of the standards. Some states were not able to add a school-library supervisor to their administrative staff; in such cases teachers in library schools and library science departments of colleges and county and town librarians were called upon for advice in the develop-

ment of local school libraries. W.P.A. resources have also been drawn upon frequently in certain areas to add to the school-library collections and to assist with organization problems.

The improved conditions of school libraries, resulting from the application of standards, provided teachers with materials and resources to enrich their teaching. Because of the book equipment available to them in the school library, they have been able to adopt modern methods of teaching and to create improved learning situations.

TABLE III.—STATUS OF HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARIES ACCREDITED BY THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION

Standards	Schools Meeting Specified Standards			
	1930[a]		1940[b]	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Number of schools	922	.....	1,197	.....
Meeting all library requirements	0	0.0	795	66.4
Meeting book requirement	363	39.3	1,119	93.5
Meeting appropriation requirement	488	52.9	1,052	87.8
Meeting librarian requirement	54	5.7	1,040	86.8
Providing adequate time in the library	54	5.7	1,093	91.3
Providing satisfactory space and equipment	401	44.6	1,138	95.0
Providing library lessons	61	6.6	1,151	96.1

[a] Source: Doak S. Campbell, *Libraries in the Accredited High Schools of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States*, Table XXII, p. 31. Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1930.

[b] Source: J. Henry Highsmith, "Report of Library Committee," *Southern Association Quarterly*, V February 1941), 135.

As libraries were introduced into schools it became necessary to instruct teachers in service and prospective teachers in the use of the library as a teaching instrument. Units on the library have been added to college education courses and summer schools have organized school-library instruction facilities for teachers. Many educators now recommend some library education for all teachers in training.

Most school-library standards require the services of a trained librarian. When the standards were first adopted there were very few teachers who had been trained in library science and almost no facilities for training them. The adoption of standards necessitated the organization of library science departments in colleges and the expansion of school-library

courses in accredited library schools to train school and teacher-librarians.

By far the most spectacular result of the application of standards has been the phenomenal increase in the number of school libraries and the improvement in their equipment. This growth has been nationwide. Comparable data on the status of school libraries before the adoption of the standards and at the present time are available for schools accredited by the Southern Association. Table III gives these figures and reveals the number of libraries that have been developed under the stimulus of the Southern Association library standards. It appears that more school libraries met *all* requirements of the Southern Association library standards in 1940 than met *any one* of the requirements in 1930. The requirements for instruction in the use of the library, space and equipment, and books have been met by over 90 per cent of the schools; those for the appropriation and a trained librarian have been met by 80 per cent of the member schools.

Standards have played an important part in the development of school libraries. They have not always been satisfactory, but through revision and modification they have been attuned to changing conditions and on the whole have served as a stimulus to library growth. At present the majority of the states and accrediting associations have established school-library standards for the schools under their jurisdiction. Though the expansion of school libraries has been impressive, it is but a scant measure of the stature they may attain if all states and regional associations develop guiding principles and evaluative devices for school-library service.

SECTION VI

PREPARATION OF THE STAFF FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE

CHAPTER XV

PREPARATION OF PUPILS AND STAFF FOR EFFECTIVE LIBRARY USE

JESSIE BOYD, ETHEL M. FEAGLEY, HELEN A. GANSER
LOUIS SHORES AND ALICE LOHRER

I

PUPILS

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A boy of ten ran ahead of his mother up the stairs of a public library in a Pacific coast city the other day, and together they consulted the card catalog. In a few moments they were searching through the appropriate drawer. The boy was heard eagerly explaining some of the markings on the card, and thereafter the two went off to the biography shelves in search of the desired book. A few minutes later, two Negro boys in soldier's uniform appeared and without hesitation stopped at the reference desk to get their bearings. With an air of confidence, they made their way around this public library in a strange city. Their manner, like that of the small boy, indicated that somewhere in their experience they had learned how to use a library and knew what it meant to have the satisfaction of finding information for themselves.

The experience of learning to tap the resources of a library—the card catalog, well-known reference books, the encyclopedias, the indexes, and other library facilities—is an experience that should come to every child as a natural part of his school life. While the use of the library is always a means to an end, nevertheless it is essential that students realize the value of library tools as short cuts and timesavers in the acquisition of

knowledge. To promote this functional use of the library, it should be maintained as an integral part of the curriculum and the life of the school. Much of the success of library instruction depends on the vision of the administrator. It is essential that he provide for the free use of the library as a laboratory rather than as a study hall, that he set up an adequate budget for the purchase of necessary books and materials, and that he employ a competent and adequate staff.

It is equally important that teachers understand the possibilities for using the library and that they have a deep conviction of the importance of library skills and habits. In addition, they must understand their part in the program of library instruction.

The librarian furthermore should recognize that she is first of all a teacher and has the responsibility not only of providing a properly organized and cataloged collection of books and pamphlets but of co-operating with teachers and co-ordinating library instruction. The librarian should have a thorough understanding of the curriculum, as well as of books and of the development of children. She should be able both to work with the faculty and to arouse enthusiasm for library use. It is her business to make the library so attractive and so serviceable that it invites use.

A knowledge of library usage is essential both for those who go into the university and for those who go directly into the activities of home and business. It gives the Freshman an opportunity to succeed during that difficult first year of adjustment in college, and it gives those who cannot avail themselves of additional formal schooling a resource for education and continuous development. For both groups it is important that they know how to select materials and that they acquire criteria for evaluating them. It is essential that they acquaint themselves with the means for exploration in the world of books and ideas and that they have standards of value for their own guidance. The more books and other printed materials available, the more essential it is that they have standards of value.

Library instruction should emphasize the essentials. In the past too many technical details have been emphasized. Often students were loaded down with library facts at the beginning of a semester, facts that were so divorced from the student's own interests and studies that they were promptly forgotten, except for a feeling of distaste for any further library experience. Complete co-operation and understanding on the part of the teacher, the librarian, and the curriculum-maker is the ideal way to in-

sure that the pupil learns to use the library effectively. Together they should set up the essentials for each grade and should provide the instruction for each particular level, keeping in mind always that the emphasis should be on library use and its role as an aid in learning the content of the various subjects.

Ideally, the child of the primary grades should be introduced to the library as an attractive place in which to read and examine picture-books. In this connection he may well learn also consideration for others, how to open a book, how to take care of books, how to use a book, how to find a book, and how to conduct himself so that all may enjoy reading. He will come to think of the library as a place where he hears interesting stories, listens to tales of authors and illustrators, and sees and sometimes participates in the dramatization of books. In the intermediate grades the pupil will learn the parts of a book: title-page—author, publisher, date of publication—the table of contents, the preface, and the index. He should know the importance and significance of the copyright date and where to find it. The purpose of the foreword, preface, or introduction can be simply presented, and a study of dedications will prove interesting. Special features of the book, such as the glossary, maps, or plates, can be noted and studied. The pupil will also become aware of the simplified dictionary as a resource for pronunciations and definitions and will be introduced to children's encyclopedias and the card catalog. In the somewhat more advanced grades he will become proficient in the use of the table of contents, the index, the glossary, and other special features. Here he should learn also that the books in the library are arranged according to a pattern characteristic of all school libraries and most public libraries. The Dewey decimal classification system can be introduced simply and interestingly.

At this level pupils should also know the essentials of the card catalog and its significance as a key or index to the contents of the library. They should know that the librarian makes at least three cards for almost every book added to the library, heading one with the author's name, one with the title, and one with the subject, and giving on each card additional information, including where, when, and by whom the book was published. The relationship of the call number in the corner of the card to the location of the book with the same number lettered on its back is the remaining important item for grade children to comprehend. Games, interesting drills, and individual problems on slips of paper can make an exciting adventure of mastering the skill of going from the card catalog

to the book on the shelves. Guide cards can be introduced at the same time, with an explanation that all the cards in the catalog are arranged alphabetically by the first main word on the top line.

The *World Almanac*, the *Junior Book of Authors*, and *Goode's School Atlas* are some of the reference books that can be interesting to boys and girls in the upper intermediate grades. The contents and alphabetical arrangement of the picture and pamphlet files also should be common knowledge at this time, and librarians should be willing to have children find their own materials.

In the junior high school there will be an increased use of encyclopedias, and differences in location and arrangement will be noted in the indexes of *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia* and the *World Book Encyclopedia.* Possibilities for the use of the dictionary, other than pronunciation and definition, will be explored; these will include the derivation of words, diacritical marking, syllabification, abbreviations, and special features of the appendix, such as the pronouncing gazetteer and the biographical dictionary. The unabridged dictionary will also receive attention. If the type of school, pupils, and curriculum warrant it, an adult encyclopedia and the *Abridged Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* may be introduced. Children often ask what determines the reason for the indexing of a magazine and are interested to know that these magazines are carefully selected and are generally the ones most commonly found in schools and libraries.

The card catalog will again receive attention as a key to the contents of the library in relation to some particular unit of the curriculum. The library is intended to serve every department, and it is well for teachers of all subjects to have their pupils utilize the card catalog for discovering the books relating to their particular fields. Additional reference books may be introduced at this time. Simple note-taking and bibliography-making also receive attention, and opportunities for practice are provided.

In the senior high school there will be new approaches to materials already studied, and there will be a definite application to the problems, units, or activities to be studied in individual classes or in the library when it is used as a laboratory. The librarians in both junior and senior high schools will arrange for an informal introduction to the library sometime during the first few weeks of school, so that every pupil may become familiar with the regulations and will feel free to use the library. Some

librarians prefer to give each student a brief printed or mimeographed leaflet containing information about the library, together with a floor plan.

Reference books relevant to certain subjects may profitably be studied during the senior high school years. The *World Almanac and Book of Facts*, the *Statesman's Yearbook*, the *American Yearbook*, the *Congressional Directory*, the *United States Government Manual*, the *Statistical Abstract of the 1940 Census*, the *Yearbook of Agriculture*, *Who's Who*, *Who's Who in America*, the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, the *New Larned History for Ready Reference*, *Shepherd's Historical Atlas*, *Current Biography*, and many others are important to students in social-studies classes. The biographical dictionaries, the indexes to poetry, fiction, plays, essays, and short stories, and handbooks in literature, quotations, literary characters, anniversaries, and holidays—all are useful to students in English classes. Similarly, students of other subjects may be introduced to appropriate reference works.

To carry on a library instructional program, there must be constant contact between the teacher and the librarian. Both must lay careful plans, the teacher especially motivating classwork so that the necessity for library tools will be felt. Students will realize that these tools are time-saving devices and not momentary conveniences. There is a technique for using the library as a laboratory which the successful teacher will employ. She will investigate the potentialities of the library in relation to the particular unit under consideration to see if there are sufficient materials on hand, in order to avoid the sense of failure and discouragement which attends the inability of a pupil to find the desired book or periodical. She will confer ahead of time with the librarian and together they can review her plans, the librarian often suggesting overlooked materials or reference books of special value. She will also make advance reservations for table space in the library for the class or class committees. When the class comes to the library, both the librarian and the teacher offer help when it is needed, giving advice, noting the progress of the individual student, and participating in the pupils' enjoyment.

Various tests have been constructed for the purpose of measuring library skills and habits at different grade levels. These tests are particularly valuable for revealing the knowledge and ability of individual students and for determining the amount and kind of necessary basic instruction.

A highly successful device for the teacher and librarian working together is the work sheet, which can serve as an effective means of instruction or review for the student. The work sheet must never become static but should be formulated or revised frequently to meet the problem or unit under consideration. When one knows, for example, that the use of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* has been emphasized as a goal in both the tenth and eleventh grades, the work sheet becomes a convenient tool for checking the results of the lesson and also an effective means of insuring the integration of library instruction with the curriculum. In general, it is well to develop several work sheets relating to the same unit or problem, so that the material and questions can be adapted to the ability levels. There should be more widely diversified questions for the advanced student, and only the barest essentials for the slow student. The questions for the latter should be simple, based upon repetition, and built around the aspects of the problem that already interest him.

There is a distinct advantage in being able to present a library tool, such as the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, with enough copies on hand for each pupil. Lacking actual copies, many teachers and librarians may avail themselves of the opportunity to obtain from the H. W. Wilson Company fifty free copies of *How to Use the Readers' Guide*—a small pamphlet containing sample pages. Large facsimiles of catalog cards, including complete author, title, subject, and "see" and "see also" cards, are effective in presenting the card catalog, and they can be used to demonstrate the alphabetical arrangement and filing of cards in the catalog. These cards can be kept in a large portfolio ready for circulation from the library loan desk. Motion pictures, slides, still films, games, and other devices can be used to advantage. Free leaflets and pamphlets on how to use the library, dictionaries, or encyclopedias are available from several of the publishers.

The time is passing when library lessons are offered solely by the librarian at the beginning of the semester, without reference to the necessity for such knowledge or the opportunity to follow up the student's immediate achievement. Preparing the pupil for effective use of the library can be a stimulating and challenging affair; and when a teacher and a librarian, with the administrator's support and understanding, start enthusiastically on a planned program, the teaching permeates the whole school and the fun of finding books, materials, and bits of information becomes contagious among pupils and teachers alike.

II
TEACHERS

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I. INTRODUCTION

There is tangible evidence that the school library is accepted as a vital part of the educational program of the country in that large sums of the public's money are spent on salaries, equipment, books, and other teaching materials. The expenditures for school libraries in the school year 1934–35 for those school systems included in the report of the *Biennial Survey of Education*[1] totaled $6,868,251. The additions to the book stock of school libraries for the same period amounted to nearly two million volumes. A single state, Tennessee, for example, expended from state and local funds close to $140,000 for library books during 1939–40 and paid out of public and local funds another $300,000 in salaries for librarians in public schools.[2] In an earlier chapter of this Yearbook (chap. xii), it is noted that many states make provision for the financial support of school libraries. Public funds are also being expended for the support of municipal and state library services intended to serve teachers and pupils as members of the community. However, buildings, money, books, and laws are but the material background for the true function of library service. If the possibilities of libraries as educational forces are to be realized, attention should be directed to preparing a sufficient and well-equipped personnel which can use them intelligently. In addition to well-trained librarians this means that teachers must be trained to use libraries for their own information and continuing education and as educational instruments in the teaching process.

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[1] Emery M. Foster and Edith A. Lathrop, "Statistics of Public-School Libraries," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1934–36*, Vol. II, chap. v. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1937. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

[2] Eleanor M. Witmer, *Library Personnel and Training Agencies in Tennessee*, p. 78. Chicago: American Library Association, 1941.

II. Present Practices in Training Teachers

What are colleges now doing to prepare teachers to utilize the library services generally introduced in our public schools and already fairly common in our communities? Since a large proportion of teachers in the secondary schools are graduates of the liberal-arts colleges, in order to answer this question it is necessary to examine the offerings of these colleges, as well as those of teachers' colleges and departments or schools of education in universities.

A recent study[3] of the use of the library by student teachers in thirty-one colleges in the area of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools reports that some instruction in the use of the library is offered in all but two of the thirty colleges reporting. It is provided in various ways: twenty conduct an orientation-week lecture or tour, eighteen have a course of instruction, seven provide the service of a library consultant, and six issue a printed bulletin or manual.

Still another study[4] investigated the practices of 153 teacher-training agencies in instructing prospective teachers about materials useful in their teaching, the use of libraries, and related subjects. Among other things it was found that 104 formal courses dealing with library use are presented by this group of colleges.

In addition to these studies, a survey of the catalogs of 225 teachers' colleges, together with personal observations and reports of concrete experiences in specific colleges, show that in general the colleges are attempting to prepare prospective teachers to utilize library service in various ways. The major emphasis at present is placed on learning to use the college library for purposes of study. There is discouragingly little evidence that attention is being given to introducing teachers to library materials and services which will be available in their fields and which will constitute a necessary part of their teaching equipment. There is also a lack of attention to libraries as adult-education agencies and to the teacher's responsibility for seeing that they are adequately supported.

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[3] John H. Lancaster, *The Use of the Library by Student Teachers*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941.

[4] Frances Henne and Mildred Hawksworth Lowell, "The Preparation of Secondary School Teachers in the Use of Library Materials," *Library Quarterly*, XII (July, 1942), 533–56.

1. Preparing College Students To Use the College Library

During the last quarter-century considerable progress has been made in helping the college student to use the library more effectively. Nearly every college makes some attempt to guide the prospective teacher, along with other students, in bibliographic methods and resources. Testing devices have been developed to determine what instruction is needed, and various methods are used to assist the student to acquire minimum skills. The increasing use of the school library at the elementary- and secondary-school levels is sending an ever growing number of students to college with some knowledge of how to use library resources. This is enabling the college to plan its courses and other devices for instructing students in library use with a degree of success hitherto impossible.

a. Courses. It is now generally recognized that all college students should acquire effective methods of study and become acquainted with bibliographical procedures and sources if they are to pursue their college work effectively and continue study throughout life. Many colleges attempt to give such instruction by means of formal courses, but the nature of these courses varies markedly. The librarian or a college instructor may teach an orientation or how-to-study course which may be a required course in some institutions and an elective in others, or it may be offered only to those students who cannot pass a diagnostic test based on library instruction offered in high schools. A few colleges offer additional instruction in library use either as a separate course or as units in a general research course required of all students. Topics considered in these courses include the arrangement of the college library, use of the card catalog, introduction to special reference books and indexes, and bibliographic procedures. From the teachers' standpoint this is excellent training. But for them an even more thoroughgoing course during the upper college years giving emphasis to special resources in the field of education would seem to be desirable.

b. Other Methods of Instruction. No mere roster of classes, important as they are, will completely answer the needs of college students for training in the use of the library. The library itself must demonstrate instructional practices by its well-stocked collection, functional arrangement, and individual direction. Library assistance should go further than merely producing facts by pointing out how and where information is to be found so that students may be made independent. Either the reference librarian or a special member of the staff, free to spend most of her ef-

forts on such informal instruction, should plan an instructional program. In some libraries there are assistants who serve as advisers to students. These are variously called readers' advisers, library consultants, reading counselors, or library specialists. The assistance which students need centers first in difficulties at the card catalog. These range from such simple things as variant spellings of authors' names, like *Meyer;* incorrect author headings for association names; lack of knowledge of filing rules and therefore difficulties in locating names such as *McCall* and *Newlon;* ignorance of other means of finding a card for a book when the author or title entry fails; and, most of all, troubles with subject headings. Students usually realize that the card catalog is an index to the books in a library, arranged by authors and subjects, but few of them appreciate the service a card catalog renders as a research tool. It is at this point that aid and instruction are so badly needed. There is room for drill in the manner of following cross-references, finding a clue to the right subject by using the tracing on author cards, and using the information on the cards for bibliographic assistance. These questions which come daily to any library assistant stationed near a card catalog should form the basis of the instruction given on the use of that tool. But the best time to give that instruction is when the individual meets a specific problem.

All phases of individual assistance are utilized in helping students who wish help in beginning work on term papers. So many questions of this nature come to the library consultants at Teachers College that special lectures are scheduled each semester to suggest basic methods and aids. Recently the students appearing at several of these lectures were checked for their knowledge of periodical indexes. Out of 189 students answering, only twenty-nine had ever heard of the *Education Index,* only twelve had ever used the *International Index,* and although the majority of them had used the *Readers' Guide,* they were not clear as to its scope. Yet these were primarily graduate students who had come from liberal-arts as well as teachers' colleges, and many of them were experienced teachers. The library consultants also confer with the students who are working on dissertations and projects. One member of the library staff, a professor of education, gives expert advice to the doctoral candidates. In the department of education of another university the library consultant joins with the professor of education in a course on thesis problems. By class instruction, mimeographed bulletins, and individual guidance she endeavors to help the students acquire a knowledge of the resources of the library, the reference materials available, and the best methods by which

any investigation is carried on. Several other colleges report that library methods are included in the graduate research courses.

The matter of form for bibliographies and footnotes is another topic which merits attention either in a library class or by informal instruction. Whenever possible, the form should be planned by co-operative action on the part of all members of the faculty. If they disagree on details, then a committee might study the matter and make recommendations for a form to be adopted by the entire school. This form should be simple, consistent, and suitable for typed papers. If all classes require the same form, students will learn it with a minimum of effort and will be free to center their attention on reading and thinking.

Another type of student request is for assistance in selecting the "best book" for a particular purpose. It may be a history of literature needed in reviewing for an examination, a survey of the various schools of psychology, the best recent book in a special field, or material for leisure-time reading. The catalog's nonselective character makes it difficult for the reader to choose unless he already has some background knowledge of the subject. This information may of course be given by the library assistant, either at a special point or at any library desk. "Silent advisers" are possible, too, by means of special card files and book lists. The machinery for this kind of advising is constantly growing and many of the tools devised for use in one school are easily modified for use in other institutions. A few are suggested here. Some large libraries have a separate catalog of new books which they file under broad subject headings so that readers may easily find the books recently added to the library. One such file covers a period of three years, with books for the current year in a separate tray. Students can easily see what has been recently added to the library in their special fields. Because of the many questions about the "best books" in education, this library has also clipped the annotated entries of the list of "Sixty Best Books in Education" from 1925 to date and pasted them on cards which are filed under broad subject headings. In this way a reader may find what books in elementary education have been selected as outstanding in this recent period. Another file contains a group of about five hundred annotated cards listing readable books on all subjects but education. These, too, are placed in a special catalog case near the main catalog and guide students who wish to read in subjects other than their majors and who need readable material. These are all aids and techniques which the specially trained librarian is best equipped to prepare and interpret.

Services such as these will not only aid and assist students with their regularly assigned college work but will provide opportunity and conditions conducive to reading which will promote intellectual breadth, discover special abilities, enhance personal tastes, develop qualities of citizenship, and result in a richer contribution to the pupils who will be under the direction of these teachers in the school.

2. Preparing Teachers to Direct Pupil Use of Library Resources

The instructional practices described so far are designed for all college students, whether they plan to teach or not. These procedures are also needed by teachers for their own college work and as examples of methods to use with pupils. But they are inadequate for that group of students who are prospective teachers or teachers in training unless followed by additional courses. This group of students should understand what constitutes a functioning school library and how to guide pupils in an increasingly independent use of reading and nonreading materials. This instruction is now being presented by means of courses in children's literature, library courses integrated with special subjects, such as English and the social sciences, or with educational courses like student teaching. Additional advantages are afforded the student by directed practice in a demonstration school and by separate courses dealing with the organization and administration of the school library.

a. Courses in Literature for Children and Young People. Courses in literature for children and young people are found in practically all colleges engaged in training teachers. They vary as to content, some stressing literature for children in the elementary grades, others concerned with adolescent literature, the teaching of reading, or story-telling. The quantity of materials available for young people has grown to such proportions that a single course can no longer encompass the literature for preschool through twelfth grade. There seems to be a tendency also to interpret literature for children and young people as any reading matter which is used for pleasure or profit during the school-age years. Some of the colleges recognize that literature may be presented to children through media other than print, and so their courses include films, radio, and puppetry, as well as books and magazines. The marked changes in educational practice detailed in chapter i emphasize the teacher's need to be familiar with a wide variety of reading materials. It is, therefore, important that careful study of the best materials available be introduced in the teacher-training curriculum and that attention be given not only to

books which develop literary appreciation but also to those which can be used to alter the outlook of pupils, deepen their understanding, modify behavior, and promote personality. There should be opportunity to read and examine new books as well as the classics, for teachers need to know not only what children *should* read but also what they are actually reading. The purpose of these courses is to enable teachers to become acquainted with children's books, to understand children's interests, and to learn how to bring the two together. This means a knowledge and appreciation of the value of children's literature, some standards and skill in choosing the "right book for the right child," and methods of bringing books and children together both in the classroom and in the library.[5]

b. Integrating Library Instruction with Subject-Matter Courses. Perhaps the most practical and effective method of presenting library instruction, and the one least likely to be shown in an examination of college catalogs, is by means of units or courses integrated with specific classes. These are presented in many ways. Sometimes the librarian is a joint instructor of the entire course; or the librarian may appear for one or two lectures. The training-school librarian or other qualified members of the staff may speak to classes in administration. In one large teachers' college special members of the library staff are often invited to visit regular classes to lecture, test, or give students direction and practice in using book and other printed materials for teaching specific subjects. This is a vital and strategic method of introducing library techniques, and it calls for close co-operation between the library and teaching staff. Why should the library staff dispense the books and the teaching staff refer to their contents without any co-operation between the two? Successful teaching always assumes responsibility for directing the study of the subject. Learning is not a task which can be accomplished incidentally and without help. The techniques of getting and using the information are often as important as the information itself. Teachers, therefore, would profit if all their courses presented the printed materials needed for the study of the subject, as well as detailed methods for using those materials with students.

The suggestion has been made that if many college instructors add to their courses some instruction on the use of reference books and study

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[5] An analysis of courses offered in the field of children's literature may be found in a study now being completed at Teachers College, Columbia University: Jennie L. Milton, *Courses in Children's Literature in Colleges and Universities in the United States.*

skills, the students will be bored by the constant repetition. This point of view fails to recognize that habituation is the essence of learning. For any idea to be mastered for permanent use, it not only must be presented but also must be made to recur time and time again in all kinds of connections. The student must grasp the idea and then have opportunities to hang various details on the main conception in order that he may understand to the point of retention. Anyone who has had the experience of teaching the same class of students for two or more successive terms, expecting to build upon what was taught the first semester, knows full well the fallacy of the assumption that teaching is necessarily followed by learning. Teaching *about* how to do a thing is not always followed by learning, as all can testify who have tried to swim, to bandage a shoulder, or to make any article from written or oral directions without much practice. So the knowledge of any one of these techniques or tools should be built up steadily by viewing it and using it in many different class situations.[6]

c. Demonstration Libraries. Any college attempting to prepare teachers should provide a demonstration school for practice teaching which is equipped with library service fully meeting the requirements of that state. Every prospective teacher should have the opportunity to observe and practice in a school which demonstrates progressive library methods and where she may use with boys and girls the books presented in the literature and subject field courses. Teachers are not expected to teach without some practice in using tools and materials which will be available in the field and they should not be expected to know how to utilize a school library unless they see a good one in action and use it frequently under the supervision and direction of the critic teachers and librarian. From this experience they will gain an appreciation of the use of a library as a teaching tool, a knowledge of how to use many books with pupils, and skill in working with a school librarian. Well-planned and directed practice of this kind will tie together the theories learned in classes and

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[6] Descriptions of actual procedures in integrating courses at specific colleges may be found in the following references: Earl Rugg, "A Library Centered Program of Teacher Education," *College and Research Libraries*, II (December, 1940), 42–47; Charles W. Sanford, "Teaching the Extensive Use of the Library to Prospective Social Studies and English Teachers," *School and Society*, XLIV (December 5, 1936), 736–37; Louis Shores, "Library-trained Teachers," *Phi Delta Kappan*, II (February, 1940), 303–6.

will prove the culminating step in bringing teachers to utilize a school library as part of their teaching equipment.[7]

Pupils are frequently called upon to use community library resources as well as those in the school. It is therefore desirable for their teachers to be acquainted with the wider resources of such libraries and the practices commonly used by them in serving both in- and out-of-school youth. Teachers in training should be encouraged to use local public library resources for boys and girls during their period of practice teaching.

d. Courses on the School Library. It is in the area of courses on the school library that one finds the greatest variation and perhaps the weakest offerings for teachers. The titles of these courses listed in college catalogs range from *Library Methods, The School Library, Reference and Bibliography*, and *Organization and Administration of a Small School Library* to *The Library as an Information Laboratory*. From their descriptions some of these courses can scarcely be distinguished from the orientation courses offered to all college students, and many others seem designed for teacher-librarians and school librarians, therefore stressing details of organization not needed by teachers at large. Many of them are restricted to methods and materials for the elementary school. It is quite important, however, that somewhere in the curriculum teachers should be given instruction on library standards, simple organization of a classroom library, and methods of teaching library lessons to pupils. They should also gain a knowledge of the possibilities of community, state, and national library service so that they can use these facilities effectively in the education of the youth coming under their guidance. Whether all this information and instruction can be integrated with the class instruction and with directed practice in demonstration libraries as suggested earlier in in this paper will depend upon the administration and organization of the particular school.

III. The Task Ahead

As stated before, the role of the library in training teachers is threefold: maximum use of the college library; recognition of the place of library services in the teaching and learning process; appreciation of the role of municipal and state library service in adult education. These aims are not mutually exclusive, however, and are not always separated in a program of instruction. Courses should be planned, of course, with

[7] An analysis of the use of demonstration school libraries may be found in Henne and Lowell, *op. cit.*

one of these aims in view, but often another will intrude at some points. An elementary course may be offered to students on the undergraduate and graduate levels in the basic tools of research. This course is based on the first aim, to instruct and guide students to learn to use a library for their own research. But many of the methods used there are identical with those used in high-school instruction, and throughout the course attention should be called to the items and methods useful in teaching on those levels.

One may compare instruction in the use of a library to the study of semantics. It is an exploration rather than a science, a "workout" instead of a subject. As a recent writer on the subject of semantics has pointed out, this kind of study rewards its students with a skill rather than a logical body of subject matter. Opportunity for practice, then, is a prime requisite in college classes and in teaching, and the more closely this practice is connected with actual needs, the better. Instead of building up a knowledge of the history of libraries or the logical arrangement of classification numbers or even a memorization of the periodical indexes available in a local library, it is much more important for students to have drill in analyzing their own difficulties and those of their pupils and deciding how to attack them. Along with this routine of analysis should go practice in simple methods of listing references, note-taking, outlining, and assimilating material before embarking on writing. Other valuable techniques include questioning whether a topic to be pursued is "fact finding" or "research," drawing inferences or conclusions from data presented and combining data from several sources into effective speaking or written experiences. Whether these methods are initiated in a "How To Study" course or a course in library methods, it is apparent that, like spelling and grammatical construction, they must be directed and corrected in all classes if they are to become permanently fixed in the habits of students.

No longer is there a question regarding the desirability of library instruction. The task ahead is to decide what to include and how to present it in the college and the schools. Because of the great variability in present practice there is as yet no artificial, stereotyped pattern. It is possible to examine courses of study and to profit by the experiences of those librarians who have been teaching courses of this kind. Library instruction in schools and colleges should not be copied from courses given in library schools for prospective librarians, nor should the instruction be couched in professional terms. College students do not require profes-

sional library courses. Instead, they should have assistance and instruction adapted to their specific needs. Fortunately texts have now appeared which are excellent guides for this new kind of instruction. And of course, those prepared in the past which offer logical surveys of library tools are still helpful references.

This whole program demands organization by a college president, who has a library point of view, and skilful direction by a librarian who can vision the library instruction not so much as a systematic presentation of a logically developed subject as the therapeutic treatment of the needs of students in a particular school. At least one member of the library staff should be a librarian who is also an experienced teacher, willing and interested in assuming these instructional duties. Not every librarian is necessarily a good teacher nor needs to be. Such a program co-operatively evolved will produce a new crop of teachers who will view the library not as an entity in itself but as a vital part of the entire educational process, the college library as an aid to study and research in all subjects, the public library as a means of continuing self-education, and the school library as a teaching technique for teachers in the elementary and secondary schools. And because librarians contribute to the personal and professional growth of all members of a community, teachers will have standards for judging such services and may actually support the growth of local library facilities.

III

TEACHER-LIBRARIANS

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I. THE PLACE OF THE TEACHER-LIBRARIAN IN THE SCHOOL

The term teacher-librarian is used to designate a person who is engaged in two types of educational activity—classroom teaching and school-library service. In some schools she is considered a teacher who carries the responsibility for the care and management of the library; in others she is a school librarian to whom a certain amount of teaching is of necessity assigned. The attitude will most likely be determined by the manner

in which her time is proportionately divided. It may also depend somewhat upon her main interest. The basic influences, however, will be the size of the school in which she is employed and its philosophy of education.

Spears says, "It can be assumed that the small high school will remain as a distinct type. It is an integral part of its community and a potential factor for influence."[8] A knowledge of its characteristics and role is important in any plan for training teacher-librarians. The following statistics are of interest in this connection.

"Almost 40 per cent of our high schools have enrolments of fewer than one hundred pupils. Those with enrolments less than three hundred total more than 76 per cent of the high schools. And more than 85 per cent have pupil enrolments below five hundred. Perhaps, the most significant fact to be noted is the location of the small high school in rural areas, communities with fewer than twenty-five hundred inhabitants. It typically operates with fewer than 130 pupils and six teachers."[9]

It is obvious that the small school must assume greater responsibility for social and cultural leadership than is the case with the large school. All community activities tend to center around the school, and relations of teachers with parents, as well as with students, become more intimate. Church influence is strong. And, in spite of the radio and the automobile, boys and girls acquire the sophisticated attitudes and habits of modern life much more slowly than youth in cities. Their interests mature more slowly. Pupils in such schools are deprived of cultural opportunities which city youth enjoy through easy access to museums, lectures, and the stimulating associations more frequently found in the larger population centers. An additional handicap to rural youth is the general inadequacy of public library service.

The small school is a closely knit organization. Each teacher has a more comprehensive part in the program, both curricular and extracurricular, than is the case in schools with larger enrolments. Integration is more easily accomplished. Guidance has a firm foundation in a well-rounded knowledge of pupils. Furthermore, the connection with the elementary grades is usually close. Elementary classes are often taught in

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[8] Harold Spears, *The Emerging High-School Curriculum and Its Direction*, p. 115. New York: American Book Co., 1940.

[9] *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1937–38*, chap. v, pp. 4–5. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1940. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940.

the same building as the high school, but even if located elsewhere the cooperative planning possibilities are favorable.

Among the drawbacks must be noted the common lack of adequate funds for materials, especially books, and also the deficiency of appropriate space provisions in old buildings for modern educational procedures. The extra-curricular load is likely to press too heavily on the faculty, because athletics, dramatics, musical activities, newspaper work, commencement programs, and class trips must all be supervised by a small group of individuals. Finally, changes in personnel occur quite frequently in the small staff.

Too often the care of the library has been considered on the basis of an extra-curricular activity. More and more, however, there is an increasing grasp by school people of the importance of library skills and understanding in all study programs, and therefore provision is made for supervising the library. Even in the smallest schools (those with enrolments below 100), the teacher-librarian should be excused from a certain number of hours of teaching and thus allotted definite time for library work, with regular hours in the library.[10] The exact amount of time necessary for library duties where the enrolment is below 100 will depend upon local conditions.

When the enrolment is above 100, approximately half the time of the teacher-librarian should be devoted to the library, and the time should be increased in accordance with the increase in number of pupils and as demands made upon the library multiply. Under ideal conditions an enrolment of 200 pupils provides ample justification for full-time library service, and certainly a high school with an enrolment of 500 should have it.[11]

The position of teacher-librarian holds possibilities of far-reaching influence in both the school and its district.

II. The Preparation of the Teacher-Librarian

The desirability of having in every community, no matter how small, one person on the school staff who has had thorough library training is obvious. But this is generally impossible in the smallest schools. Some

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[10] Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *School Library Standards*. Durham, North Carolina: The Association, 1936.

[11] Lucille F. Fargo, *Preparation for School Library Work*, p. 55. New York: Columbia University Press, 1936.

training, however, is essential and great improvement would result from a requirement of at least six semester hours of special preparation.

In schools large enough to require at least half-time library service, a fairly thorough program of training is desirable, for the organization of the library and the demands made upon it approximate the status of the library in the larger institution. A practical program of preparation will provide for half a year of library training (the minimum requirement of the American Library Association Board of Education for Librarianship)[12] with provision for subsequent study to complete the course.

We may now specify certain of the areas where the teacher-librarian should have special competence and which her course of preparation should therefore emphasize.

a. Book Knowledge. The importance of the teacher-librarian in educational organization rests chiefly upon her ability to make efficient use of books, to advise and give service to other faculty members in the selection of their teaching materials, and to aid young people in the formation of reading and study habits. Therefore, the book courses will be seen to be fundamental in the curriculum, and in planning them it must be remembered that in a rural area the teacher-librarian in the high school frequently serves elementary-school children and also the adults of the community and must necessarily be familiar with suitable library materials for these groups as well.

b. Reading Guidance. The prospective librarian must be prepared to use various devices to introduce suitable materials to the readers for whom they are supplied. This will necessitate training in book reviewing and in the study of other publicity methods. It will also require skill in reading guidance and preparation to co-operate with remedial reading programs.

c. Teaching the Use of Books. The teacher-librarian must be the school specialist in teaching the use of books and libraries, though the co-operation of other faculty members is needed. The teacher-librarian must be prepared to offer such instruction and to take the leadership in a general program in which the entire school participates.

d. Organization. Good organization is essential to the functioning of any library, so the teacher-librarian must be well-grounded in the technical processes adapted to school-library requirements. The half-time librarian must be as competent in this field as the full-time librarian, for

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[12] American Library Association Board of Education for Librarianship. *The Preparation of Teacher-Librarians.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1937.

she will deal with the same types of materials; furthermore, the pupils should have the opportunity to become acquainted with standard library procedures.

e. Practical Work. The ability of the teacher-librarian to cope with the problems which arise will be greatly strengthened by a thorough training schedule of practical work. The need for a background of experience in dealing with children and adults in library activities must not be underestimated. Systematic habits in routine duties should be developed. Skill in book repair is required in small schools where funds for new books are frequently insufficient. Opportunity to participate in group organization of school libraries proves to be of great benefit. Field work in school libraries under the supervision of capable librarians is particularly desirable for the purpose of integrating the various phases of training.

III. Summary

A teacher-librarian in charge of a library in a small school is confronted first with the need of order, no matter how limited her time for library duties. A knowledge of simple methods of accessioning, classifying, shelf-listing, and cataloging books, and also of book repair, is essential. But a curriculum planned for her training should emphasize the use of books as tools and the place of books in the enrichment of living. It is of the utmost importance that she have an opportunity to develop familiarity with books and other teaching aids and to learn how she and the other teachers may stimulate and guide reading interests. Knowledge of public library extension agencies and their services will enable her to be of assistance in both school and community. The educational function of the library should be understood in even the smallest school.

IV
SCHOOL LIBRARIANS

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I. Introduction

The training of school librarians today is carried on in several types of training agencies. For convenience in discussion, these will be grouped into (*a*) those having a curriculum of one year or more and accredited by

the American Library Association, and (*b*) those not accredited by the American Library Association. In the latter the curriculum may cover only a few credit hours or it may extend beyond a year, with variations between. This section is concerned primarily with the preparation of full-time school librarians, educated in the library schools accredited by the Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association.

For convenience of treatment the subject of training school librarians is considered under three heads: (1) selection of students, (2) curriculum and placement, and (3) personnel and facilities for training.

II. Selection of Students

The term "selection" is here used to include both the process of evaluating applicants' qualifications for pursuing a course of training for school librarianship and efforts to recruit desirable candidates for the work.

Most students entering library school are in the middle twenties in age and, in addition to approximately sixteen years of earlier schooling, have typically had some post-college work experience. It seems so obvious as to require only a bare statement, without elaboration, that a professional curriculum of only one year in library school can do little more than equip the prospective school librarian with the most important library techniques and some fundamental points of view. The broad general education, knowledge of contemporary affairs, the appreciation of books, and the knowledge of factors which condition the physical, emotional, and social development of young people, so essential for successful school librarianship, are not embraced in the typical library-school curriculum. If these qualities are to be found in professionally trained school librarians, the policies of selection and admission of students to library school must seek to identify the qualities and make these elements the basis of admission.

Requirements for admission are almost standardized in the library schools accredited by the American Library Association. In schools of Types I and II,[13] college graduation with a creditable scholarship record, frequently described as a "B" average, is almost universal. Other requirements usually specify a major in one broad division of the under-

[13] In Types I and II schools instruction is offered on the graduate level and the bachelor's degree normally is prerequisite. Type III schools admit undergraduates of junior standing or above.

graduate curriculum, such as language and literature, social sciences, natural sciences, or fine arts; age limitations of from 20 to 35 years; ability to operate a typewriter; reading knowledge of one or more modern foreign languages; and references as to character and promise in library work. Evidence regarding character and professional promise is usually sought from some librarian who knows the applicant, and statements of reading and other interests are typically requested on the application blank.

Many of the library schools are now questioning the validity of the bachelor's degree as the chief qualification for admission and there is some question about the reliability of undergraduate grades as an index of future success in a library school. In a recent study of some seven hundred graduates of one of the older library schools, Dr. Eugene Wilson concluded that at best "prediction of library-school marks based on undergraduate marks would be only 37 per cent better than chance predictions."[14]

The tendency in the past to associate library work most closely with English and history, which formerly used library materials proportionately more than other subjects, has resulted in a preponderance of librarians with equipment in these two fields. Indeed, Dr. Wilson reports that 47.6 per cent of the library-school graduates included in his study presented English as the major field and fully two-thirds presented either English or history.[15]

For the preparation of school librarians there has been a tendency to modify the requirements. Most frequently added has been an additional requirement in education and psychology sufficient to insure teacher as well as library certification in the home state of the prospective school librarian. Greatest objection has been voiced to the foreign-language requirement, which both school administrators and librarians have considered less important in school-library service than in other types of preparation.

By far the majority of applicants for admission to library-school courses preparing for other than school-library work come from liberal-arts colleges or from public or college libraries; but the greater number of those preparing for school-library work come either from teaching or

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[14] Eugene Wilson, "Pre-professional Background of Students in a Library School," *Library Quarterly*, VIII (April, 1938), 157–88.

[15] *Ibid.*

from teacher-training institutions. Miss Fargo's analysis,[16] for example, of some 541 elementary- and high-school librarians, showed a distribution of sources from which school librarians are recruited, as shown in Table I.

The recruits from teachers-in-service or in-training presumably bring with them knowledge of the school curriculum and of optimum conditions under which learning takes place, and this is extremely valuable to the future librarian. To the extent that these conditions obtain, this source of

TABLE I.—SOURCES FROM WHICH SCHOOL LIBRARIANS ARE RECRUITED

Source	Number of Librarians		
	High School	Elementary School	Total
Teachers-in-service	82	92	174
Liberal-arts colleges	76	52	128
Librarians-in-service	64	58	122
Teacher-training institutions	55	62	117

supply is a valuable one. The chief factors questioned involve the extent to which teacher-education is gained at the expense of broad, general "cultural" education[17] and the possibility that some teachers, less successful in the classroom or troubled by problems of discipline, may turn to the library as a field of less stress in which success may be more easily attained.

Dr. Altstetter's report on 108 of the 200 high schools in the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards[18] attempted an evaluation of the librarians' training in these schools on the same basis (but with recog-

[16] Fargo, *op. cit.*, p. 105.

[17] W. S. Learned and B. D. Wood, *The Student and His Knowledge*. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1938. (This report to the Carnegie Foundation on the results of high-school and college examinations in Pennsylvania would appear, however, to throw some doubt on the value of the broad, general courses in the liberal-arts college as well as on teacher-education. See especially pp. 31, 300, 335.)

[18] M. L. Altstetter, "Evaluating the Education of Secondary-School Librarians," *School Review*, XLVI (June, 1938), 453–62.

nition for library science) as classroom teachers and administrators, taking the following five measures into account: (1) professional adequacy (number of hours in library science); (2) general adequacy (college work other than library science); (3) academic comprehensiveness (secondary and college fields); (4) educational comprehensiveness (education and psychology); and (5) recency (date of last study in library science). Altstetter concluded: "As a class, librarians are less adequately and comprehensively prepared in both academic and educational fields than are classroom teachers; even when library science is included in the total, their preparation does not equal that of teachers." In particular, he found librarians better prepared in English and the social sciences and less well-prepared in mathematics, foreign languages, science, arts, and education than classroom teachers who have not majored in these fields. It might be questioned, however, whether these 108 school librarians fairly represent librarians with accredited training, since Dr. Altstetter included everyone who devoted half or more time to the library.

Efforts at an objective evaluation of the book interests of applicants and the possession of personality traits considered desirable have met with relatively little success. Personal interviews are often requested and sometimes required prior to admission, in an effort to evaluate these traits. Variations in the skill of interviewers and the subjective nature of the judgments may limit the value of this procedure; and there may be need for the use of more objective techniques as a supplement to the other methods of acquiring information.

In passing, one other aspect of the admission problem should be mentioned. More than 200 colleges offer undergraduate instruction for school librarians.[19] In most of the schools the offerings do not constitute a full-year curriculum, being offered either as free electives or toward a library-science minor. The graduate who has pursued such a course is usually certified as a teacher, and in many states he also meets requirements for part-time school-library work. If the graduate who has pursued this library "short course" later wishes to attend an American Library Association Type I or Type II graduate school, two difficulties may be encountered. First, the undergraduate record, because of the inclusion of required courses—psychology and education, and also electives in library science—may show weakness in general cultural fields; and second,

[19] Frances Lander Spain, "School Library Standards." Unpublished Master's thesis, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1940.

the professional library-school curriculum is planned for beginning students rather than for integration with this undergraduate work.[20]

The present basis of selection needs further study and evaluation by professional workers, using the most valid research and field techniques available. Particular consideration should be given to study of the values inherent in the present admission requirements and to efforts to identify the personality traits which are important in promoting effective learning in the school library.

III. Curriculum

The library is an integral part of the school, and its functions are derived from educational objectives rather than from a consideration of the library as an isolated phenomenon. The basic purpose of the one-year library-school curriculum is to enable the prospective librarian to attain the knowledge, techniques, and skills essential in implementing the library's contribution to the growth and development of students.

There are numerous variations among the accredited library schools in the first-year curriculum but the basic content may be grouped into four courses, at least a part of which is always required. These are organization and administration, book selection, cataloging and classification, and reference. The first includes professional education and library philosophy, technical processes, records and reports, and special problems of administration. *Book selection* deals with the selection and purchase of books and other materials, including a study of format, editions, prices, publishers, dealers, and other phases of the book trade. *Cataloging and classification* is primarily concerned with the arrangement of materials so that they may be easily and quickly found according to subject, title, or author. *Reference* courses equip the librarian for assisting readers in locating desired information.

The basic library-school curriculum antedates the present emphasis on school libraries. Consequently, library schools which prepare school librarians have been forced to modify the traditional curriculum either by broadening the content of courses to include application of general theory to the school library, or to follow general courses by special ones devoted to the problems of organization and administration, book selection, cataloging and classification, and reference in school libraries. Either ap-

[20] For a further discussion of this problem, see the *Proceedings of the Southern Conference on Library Education.* Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1942.

proach to the problem is regarded as satisfactory so long as sufficient emphasis has been placed upon school problems.

A fundamental consideration is that the library-school student should make a specific vocational choice between school-library service and some other specialized library field. To this end the co-operation of employing officers in the public schools and library-school students and administrators is essential. The former should insist upon general and specialized training, while library-school faculty and administrative officers should provide and require special school preparation as a prerequisite to recommendation. Since the emphasis upon special preparation and certification is relatively recent, some consideration of modern problems and trends is pertinent.

First among these educational trends is the great curriculum-revision movement which has transformed elementary schools and has already begun to change the character of secondary and higher education. Of siginficance to the school librarian should be the growing recognition that "learning through reading" is as important to studies predominantly mental in their activities as "learning by doing" is to those studies which emphasize manual activities. Consequently, the curriculum experts have found themselves increasingly concerned with a multiplicity and variety of graded materials for each of the study units.

At this point the properly trained school librarian should be of major assistance. But in a good many cases this has not been true, either because the educator has failed to enlist the services of or to consult with the librarian or because the librarian was not adequately informed concerning curriculum procedures and problems. As a result, such duplications as vertical files in libraries and materials bureaus in administrators' offices have developed independently, one weakened by lack of relation to the educational program and the other by inexpert selection technique.

Thorough training in curriculum construction, with adequate opportunity to participate in the revision programs of her own school, of her city, and of state programs, may well be considered a fundamental part of every school librarian's equipment. It is encouraging to note that many curriculum committees now include one or more trained librarians and that there is close co-operation on some campuses between curriculum experts and library schools.

A second significant trend in the educational world is the new and revitalized interest in diagnostic and remedial reading. In the past few years a whole new science of analyzing children's reading difficulties and

prescribing correctives has developed, and as more children are studied the librarian's contribution looms ever larger. For example, although physical defects and faulty eye movement are back of much retarded reading, it is interesting to note that increasingly the prescriptions for correction involve careful selection of reading materials. Here, in many instances, the librarian is better prepared than the average reading technician on the materials, but she is less well-prepared in her knowledge of the child.

This suggests that school-library preparation should include far more attention to the learning of reading by children. There is, of course, some difference of opinion. Many librarians believe that the library should provide the reading materials but leave reading instruction entirely to the teacher in the classroom. But a growing number of educators and librarians are convinced that the only way the library can become an integral part of the school, in fact as well as in theory, is by taking over completely the teaching of reading. To some extent this is already being done in some elementary schools where the librarian is the reading teacher in a partially departmentalized program and where the five or more library periods a week are devoted to a planned, sequential program of informational, recreational, oral, and remedial activities.

Regardless of these few divergent views, an elementary knowledge of diagnostic and remedial reading techniques by all school librarians is indispensable. This should include skill in the use of such instruments as the ophthalmograph, metronoscope, and telebinoculars, as well as actual work with children and acquaintance with the literature of the subject. Most of the 76 per cent of American high schools with enrolments under 200, to say nothing of the more than 200,000 elementary schools, will be unable to afford both a librarian and a reading specialist. The combination is not only economical, but logical and practical as well.

A third significant educational trend with strong library implications is that involving the use of audio-visual aids. Even conventional libraries have long housed and serviced certain nonprinted materials, such as museum objects, pictures, maps, charts, diagrams, slides, and stereographs. Other libraries have included phonograph records, films, slides, film strips, and even sound equipment. It seems, therefore, educationally wise to help the administrator in search of a suitable administrative and distributive center for his recently acquired audio-visual materials and equipment by calling his attention to the library. The modern school library should be prepared to acquire, organize, and disseminate along

with printed material all of the newer nonprinted aids and equipment. To do this well, the school librarian must have basic instruction not only in the selection and preparation of audio-visual materials but also in the use and care of such equipment as film, film strip and opaque projectors, record players, radio recorders, and other sound equipment.

Finally, there is the matter of an underlying educational philosophy for the school library. Most librarians continue to contrast the voluntary aspects of the library situation with the regimental aspects of the classroom, largely because they have failed to keep up with the changes in educational philosophy and in instructional methods. Although there are still a great many traditional classrooms in American schools, their number is ever decreasing in the face of a new generation of teachers whose methods are worthy of study in relation to the library. Perhaps the most striking phenomenon in these newer learning situations is the growing similarity to library conditions, especially in the social studies, language arts, and other school fields that emphasize mental more than manual activity. At the same time it is worth noting that a number of school libraries are experimenting with a type of guidance that is remarkably similar to the procedure of the better classrooms. It is no wonder that Dean Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University, was led to observe some time ago that both library and classroom are in a transition stage and that the school of the future is likely to be composed of neither classroom nor library but of learning situations that have the best features of both.

The implication for school-library training is obvious. Educational philosophy as a professional study has too small a place in the present curriculum. It is essential that every school librarian be acquainted with the conflicting educational theories of progressives and essentialists, of activity and sequential programs, of learning by doing and learning through vicarious experiences, to the end that she may arrive at some working philosophy for her library and herself, some concept of the library's responsibility in assisting the school to attain its educational objectives.

IV. Personnel and Training Facilities

A considerable body of literature is available regarding the staff personnel and physical facilities needed for the professional education of school librarians.[21] Accredited library schools are almost universally con-

[21] See American Library Association standards for accredited library schools and the Southern Association standards.

nected with recognized institutions of higher education, so that factors associated with general institutional excellence are also applicable to the facilities of the library school "in accordance with the spirit of the qualitative standard movement. . . . . The character of the curriculum, efficiency of instruction, professional spirit and atmosphere of the library school, the professional achievement of its graduates, and the standards and general reputation of the institution of which it is a part shall be factors in determining the eligibility of a library school for accreditation, in addition to the more quantitative factors enumerated as requirements."[22]

Assuming such specialized faculty training as two or more years of professional training beyond the undergraduate bachelor's degree, special emphasis should be given to the importance of training in the fields of psychology, applied to the development and learning of children, in the school curriculum, and to applications of general library theory to the school. Recency of training in these fields is important because of the comparatively new development of the school library.[23] Consequently, college and university librarians, and less often members of library-school faculties, may be found to be deficient in specialized training pertinent to the curriculum for school librarians.

A second factor that deserves special attention is the importance of special book collections in library science, in general children's literature, and in a wide variety of text and supplementary materials appropriate to the school curriculum. Teachers colleges and schools of education have recognized the importance of demonstration or laboratory schools, but have sometimes failed to provide them with school libraries which in physical facilities, scope and quality of the book collection, and professionally trained librarians are comparable with standards prevailing in other phases of the program of the institution. It is particularly important that the training agency have available for the observation of those in training—teachers, principals, superintendents, supervisors, as well as school librarians—facilities that demonstrate the best theories of learning through the use of school-library materials.

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[22] "Proceedings of the Fifty-fifth Annual Conference of the American Library Association," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXVII (December 15, 1933), 610.

[23] Textbooks on administration of elementary and secondary schools have included sections or chapters on the school library only in recent years—roughly, in the past decade.

A final factor is the need for special facilities of a laboratory nature—workrooms outfitted with typewriters and equipment for practical demonstration and for practice in preparation of such materials as maps, charts, pictures, audio and visual aids, and similar materials which are actively becoming an integral part of the modern school library.

V

PRINCIPALS AND SUPERINTENDENTS

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Earlier chapters have been concerned with analyzing the important functions and principles underlying successful library operations and the methods of transforming principles into practice. But it will not be possible to transform principles into practice adequately until desirable training programs are established for acquainting administrative officers with their responsibilities in regard to school-library service.

There is a definite need for such a program. Although a few of the current texts on school administration devote some attention to the responsibilities of the superintendent and principal for satisfactory library service, this recognition has come late, and it may be questioned whether it has as yet achieved a place in the training of school administrators.

Many of the preceding chapters—in particular chapters ix, xii, and xiii—include discussions of the areas of school-library operation with which the administrator should be familiar, and presumably these areas should properly form the basis for training the administrator for his future responsibilities with respect to the school library. No course of training is here outlined; instead, we shall consider certain specific questions with which the administrator is likely to be most intimately concerned and which, therefore, deserve attention in the training program.

1. What should the school administrator know about the librarian?

A school administrator should take great care in selecting a librarian. The librarian is more than a custodian or dispenser of books; she is in addition an organizer, administrator, personnel worker, and teacher. Her training and background are important. The school administrator

will recognize that a school librarian with adequate background should be able to aid in planning curriculum revision and construction. To give effective library service for classroom teachers and to integrate the library with classroom procedures, the librarian should have time to visit the classes and to aid teachers in curriculum enrichment. The librarian needs to be relieved of many of the clerical and routine duties that can be adequately handled by pupils or clerical assistants. Arrangements for the program of duties of the school librarian must be made by the school administrator.

2. What is the school administrator's role in school-library finance?

The school administrator should be thoroughly conversant with the program of the school library so that provision may be made for its adequate financing. It is well to have a long-term budget plan worked out by administrator and librarian co-operatively; the librarian's knowledge of book costs and services can be checked against the administrator's conception of desirable educational goals and an understanding of the amount of money available for all purposes. Teaching methods which emphasize many books and heavy dependence upon the library will be reflected in greater financial demands, and the budget should be developed accordingly. A well-planned budget will prevent overemphasis upon books of a certain type or for a certain department to the exclusion of proper attention to the needs of other aspects of the educational program.

3. What background should the school administrator expect his teaching staff to have concerning the school library and available library resources outside the school?

School administrators should expect the teaching staff to know not only what can be found in the library and where to find it, but also what services the library may legitimately be expected to offer. A joint responsibility devolves upon the librarian and the teacher. It is the librarian's responsibility to keep the teacher informed about the acquisition of new materials; to help with bibliographic references; to assist in curriculum enrichment; and to secure for the faculty, services available from other libraries and state agencies. The teacher has the responsibility of becoming acquainted with the resources of the library; of making class assignments that require library materials; of sending pupils to the library; and of selecting new books for the collection.

4. What provision should the school administrator make for a professional library for teachers, librarians, and school administrators?

School administrators will recognize the value of establishing a collection of books for the use of teachers in the school system. Such a professional library would keep the staff informed of new educational movements and trends, new developments in the various fields covered by the curriculum, experiments in teaching methods, discoveries in educational psychology, and world movements of which the teaching staff should be cognizant. Such a library may be developed in collaboration with a municipal, county, or regional library, or with a library in the county superintendent's office.

5. What should be the function of the school administrator in strengthening the relations between public and school libraries, or in city, county, and regional library co-operation?

The school administrator should be aware of the problem of educational and library interdependence and joint community responsibilities. This involves more than an understanding of various forms of contracts between school boards and public library boards for co-operative library administration. It involves a recognition of the need for library service to rural schools, of plans for co-operative library services between school and public libraries, and the possibilities of county or regional library supervision.

The educational facilities provided for and available to the elementary and rural school are very important to the secondary school. Children who come to the high schools with meager library backgrounds are seriously handicapped, and the whole teaching program of the high school may be affected by these inadequately trained pupils. School administrators and school boards have as great a responsibility for making books and library resources available to the outlying schools, homes, and communities as has the public library. In many counties where there are no public libraries, the school offers the only library resources available.

Careful study should be made of the possibilities of co-operative book-buying, cataloging, and bibliographic and reference services that may be developed by school and public libraries. Co-operative buying and planning offer opportunities for financial savings and for greater service through reading guidance and personnel work. It might also be possible to have a county or regional school-library supervisor to direct library activities in schools unable to afford a full-time, trained librarian.

6. What is the function of the school administrator in utilizing the resources of the school library in relation to community activities?

The school administrator should recognize the part his school library

can play in such community activities as defense-training classes, adult education, vocational education, and guidance of youth outside the school. A study of what is being done by public libraries and schools will reveal interesting possibilities. The school library has the resources and the trained personnel that should be utilized in such extension of its services.

7. What should the school administrator know about the function of the school library in relation to the audio-visual movement in education and the use of nonbook materials?

Limitations of space, equipment, and funds, as well as insufficient understanding by many school administrators, by teachers, and by librarians concerning the value of audio-visual materials for instructional purposes have slowed the development of audio-visual education. Constructive use of the radio and the film in teaching requires modifications of the educational program by school administrators. The importance of the library as a co-ordinating agency in securing and making available audio-visual materials should be capitalized by the school administrator. The library in the audio-visual program should be conceived of as a materials bureau, as a publicity agent, as a transcription, script, and film library, and as a broadcasting, listening, and projection center. The school administrator should also understand some of the administrative problems inherent in securing, housing, and distributing the nonbook materials such as pamphlets, slides, pictures, films, records, and radio transcriptions needed for classroom instruction. In addition to studying the benefits of handling this material through the school library, school administrators should consider possibilities of devising co-operative plans with other schools and libraries in the area to secure and share much of this expensive and somewhat ephemeral material. Film resources available from national and state educational agencies, and from state university extension services, should be considered as supplementing the school library collection.

8. What should the school administrator know about planning for library provisions in new and reconstructed buildings?

Before planning a school library or remodeling an old building, the functions of the school library, in respect to both the school and the community needs, should be clearly understood. Available library resources in the community and county should be analyzed. Emphasis should be placed upon the excellent resources for help and information that are available from state and national library agencies. The American Library

Association and state libraries are prepared to give advice and help concerning matters of floor plans, equipment, and contractors and firms who deal in library equipment and supplies. Library experts have prepared floor plans that are available for study. The progressive school administrator will want to plan a library in terms of its functional use in the educational program of the school.

9. What should the school administrator know about the library resources of state and national agencies?

School administrators should know of the possibilities available to all school libraries for supplementing their own collections of books and other materials. Books and films may be borrowed or rented from state and national agencies; e.g., the state library, library commission, state university extension service, agricultural extension agencies, the United States Office of Education, and the American Library Association. Knowing where to get expert help, advice, additional resources to supplement the local school library, and well-selected book lists will assist the school administrator, working with the librarian, to make the school library a dynamic force in education.

SECTION VII

EVALUATION AND RESEARCH

CHAPTER XVI

THE EVALUATION OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES[1]

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I. INTRODUCTION

Even after a library has been measured in terms of existing standards or of other criteria, the school administrators and the librarian will probably want to interpret these ratings in terms of the effectiveness of the library in the school of which it forms a part. This total evaluation of the school library encompasses so many aspects of school librarianship and of education that generalizations pertaining to its theory and procedure cannot be made arbitrarily or with finality.

Based upon educational objectives which relate to changes in behavior of students, evaluation measures the degree of effectiveness with which an educational institution or a component part of an educational institution achieves the objectives. Any evaluation of any institution thus involves an agreement about values desired and about methods to appraise these values. The techniques of measurement, particularly those noting growth in student behavior, are still being developed through experimentation.

One of the implications of the preceding paragraph is that the evaluation of school libraries represents today a procedure quite different from that of other periods. Formerly, interest centered in the material aspects of the library, and the library's holdings, budget, and similar elements were compared with existing norms, or the emphasis was placed on the

[1] Throughout this chapter it has not seemed necessary to distinguish by specific reference among elementary-school libraries, secondary-school libraries, and junior-college libraries. Although most of the material here contained slants toward the secondary-school library, the basic principles remain applicable to elementary-school and to junior-college libraries.

achievement of students as reflected in their scores on tests dealing with library skills; today, although these two areas remain significant, the concentration of interest has changed to the measurement of the educational functionalism of the library in which the participation of the library in the personal development of the individual pupil assumes primary importance.

This chapter suggests areas in which librarians may establish their own evaluating procedures[2] so that they may measure the effectiveness of their libraries, and it notes those qualifying factors which must be determined in order to assure a valid interpretation. To this end, the chapter establishes a program of evaluation consisting of four parts: (1) basic factors affecting all evaluations of school libraries; (2) application and interpretation of standards; (3) evaluation in terms of the school's objectives; and (4) records in relation to evaluation.

II. The Program of Evaluation

The basic assumption underlying the program of evaluation centers in the theory that (*a*) a school library can be evaluated validly only in relation to the objectives of its school and (*b*) the library cannot be evaluated in isolation from the total school scene. The following program is proposed for the total evaluation of any school library, but it would also lend itself to the evaluation of most parts of the library's material possessions or of most phases of library service:

1. Obtaining information concerning basic factors which describe the school and which affect the evaluation of the school library.
2. Measuring the library in terms of existing standards relative to budget, staff, materials collection, equipment, and library use.
3. Appraising the library's participation in the achievement of the school's objectives.
4. Keeping the essential records necessary for a valid evaluation.

The program of evaluation recognizes the following four procedures as forming the general process of evaluating: (1) identification of the factors in an institution or in a process which are to be judged; (2) determining and collecting the data necessary for a sound judgment; (3) analy-

[2] Two major lines of approach should be distinguished: (1) evaluating the school library in an all-school evaluation, and (2) evaluating the library only. The first of these approaches is preferable, but since total-school evaluations may occur infrequently, the librarian may wish to launch her own evaluating program.

sis and synthesis of the data; and (4) application of the synthesis to the institution or process being judged. In some instances it may be desirable to bring in individuals who are not connected with the school to evaluate the library so as to benefit from the opinions of those experienced in evaluating and to obtain new viewpoints.

III. Basic Factors Affecting All Evaluations of School Libraries

Since the library cannot be evaluated apart from the educational program of the school, evidence which describes the nature of the school must be collected for the following ten areas:

1. The objectives of the school.
2. The objectives of the school library. (Although the primary objectives of the school library are the same as those of its school, the librarian may also formulate additional objectives which pertain specifically to the work of the library.)
3. The nature of the school's curriculum, including extra-curricular activities.
4. The school's organization, i.e., number of grades included, size of geographical area served, administrative organization (private school, central school, public school in a city system, or other form).
5. General characteristics of the student body (number of pupils enrolled, sex, socio-economic backgrounds, and similar factors).
6. The number of faculty members and faculty load.
7. The nature of the instructional methods which prevail in the school and the extent to which curricular motivations in using library materials exist; the use and provision of materials in the classrooms and the degree to which teachers use and are acquainted with the library.
8. The characteristics of the community in which the school is located as they affect the school situation.
9. The pupils' and the faculty's accessibility to materials other than those provided within the school—public libraries, home libraries, bookstores, and other sources.
10. Methods of sending, or scheduling, students to the library.

Information concerning these factors may explain why limitations, previously determined in an application of standards, exist in any given school library; it may also explain why superior conditions exist in a library. Finally, these factors may reveal in a school library certain limita-

tions which an application of standards failed to detect. A school library with a high rating as checked against norms may not be meeting the requirements of the curriculum, or it may not be conforming with the educational policy of the school.

IV. The Application and the Interpretation of Standards

Chapter xiv, which enumerates school-library standards existing today, has a close relationship to this chapter. When the evaluation of a school library does not involve the measurement of the situation in terms of accepted standards, it is probably because standards applicable to whatever is being evaluated do not exist. Standards provide one means of measuring libraries on the basis of established norms. But certain limiting characteristics of standards must be recognized by those who use them in evaluating school libraries; this recognition should not result in the negation of the value of standards nor in a derogatory attitude toward them, but it should encourage the practice of going beyond the data obtained from the application of standards and of discovering additional evidence necessary for a thorough interpretation of the status of the library in question. Considerations which restrict the value of arbitrary standards include the following:

1. Quantitative standards tend to represent minimal and not optimum requirements.
2. Some standards used alone measure the library in isolation from the total school program.
3. Standards tend to emphasize the administrative aspects and not the educational functions of the school library.
4. Standards are devised in forms applicable to many school libraries and not to single situations; consequently they are often invalid for special or for atypical situations—the extremely large school library, the private school library, the central school library, the library in a school holding night classes for adults, or the school library extending its service to adults in the community. This element of universality in standards makes it impossible to include all of the factors essential for the interpretation of any single school situation.
5. Some standards relating to budget, space, staff, and the size of the book collection are based on assumptions which have not been proved objectively. For example, some standards represent hypotheses not founded on evidence, while others which may be based on evidence obtained from conditions existing in the better libraries may repre-

sent factors which accompany rather than cause the superior conditions.

6. Some standards have not recognized sufficiently the provision and use of nonbook materials.
7. Purely qualitative standards make precise measurement difficult.
8. Measuring the library by means of standards shows only what the library has achieved and not what might have been achieved had adequate facilities prevailed. Libraries with high ratings as compared with other schools may still be falling far short of meeting the demands in their schools.

A few examples must suffice to indicate reasons why measurements in terms of standards should not be relied upon exclusively. The allocation of staff numbers in terms of the size of the total pupil enrolment of the school in which the library is situated satisfies only minimal requirements in many schools; the underlying assumption, i.e., that there is a connection between staff size and enrolment, has not been proved as valid. Decisions need to be reached concerning the optimum pupil load per school period that a school librarian can handle in an educationally functional situation. Experimentation in one school library has shown that one librarian can work constructively with forty pupils (the maximum number) in one period.

Differences in educational requirements of librarians on the basis of size of pupil enrolment remain open to question. Limitations exist in the prevailing methods of rating school librarians on the basis of the number of college credits they have accumulated and the number of years of experience that they have had. Too often overlooked are such matters as the diversity and the quality of the librarian's achievement during his educational and professional careers. Intelligent observation of the way in which the librarian meets and works with students and with teachers provides a more realistic index of measurement. The librarian's knowledge of materials should be tested and not assumed. Librarians should know about educational trends and methods, about adolescent psychology, and about the area of reading, but it is more important to observe what the librarian does with this information than to note merely that he has course credits in these subjects.

Adequate library space in the school must also be determined by objective investigation which takes into consideration the proportion of students who have daily access to materials within the school. One solution may lead to decentralizing the school library, either by classroom li-

braries or by seminars; another may come about through the establishment of three or four libraries in large schools instead of the one library which usually prevails now. However, no correlation exists intrinsically between superior equipment, including space coverage, and superior library service, although the former may directly affect the latter.

As a final example, standards setting up a per capita student basis for determining the amount of the library's budget for books do not always prove satisfactory; in smaller schools such standards may fail to meet the needs of the teachers and of the pupils.

From the preceding illustrations it can be concluded that certain disadvantages exist in adhering rigidly to specifications which have not been based on the results of direct experiment. The extension of school-library activities into educational areas has been retarded in the main by limitations, within the library, of space, staff size, and time—all problems which could be solved by the administration of the school; minimal standards concerned with administrative and not educational aspects of the library not only fail to solve these problems but may also perpetuate them. The application of standards, then, forms but a preliminary evaluation in the library.

V. The Library's Participation in the Achievement of the School's Objectives

The most important aspects of evaluating the school library, and the one that is the most difficult to describe and to measure, concerns the library's participation in the achievement of the school's objectives. Each school, of course, may have its own set of objectives. For the purpose of discussion this section employs the following types of objectives used by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association: (1) the development of effective methods of thinking; (2) the cultivation of useful work habits and study skills; (3) the inculcation of social attitudes; (4) the establishment of a wide range of significant interests; (5) the development of increased appreciation of music, art, literature, and other aesthetic experiences; (6) the development of social sensitivity; (7) the achievement of better personal-social adjustment; (8) the acquisition of important information; (9) the building of physical health; and (10) the construction of a consistent philosophy of life.[3]

[3] North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *General Education in the American High School*, p. 299. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1942.

It is assumed that the library can participate effectively in the school's program to achieve objectives the same as or similar to those stated above only when it has a materials collection which meets the needs, interests, and abilities of the students; when equalization of library service to all students prevails within the school—i.e., each student has equal and adequate opportunity to use the library and its resources; when the library service to the teachers is geared to meet the requirements of their work; when adequate space, funds, and staff are provided for the library; and when the teachers use the school library and are familiar with the library's resources, policies, and regulations. Obviously, before evaluating the school library in relation to the objectives of the school, it is first necessary to determine how much opportunity is provided the library to achieve the objectives.

What can the library do to promote the school's objectives? What kinds of activities should be evaluated? Only a few examples can be presented here, but the following types of activities, grouped under the appropriate objectives, may suggest areas of participation:

(1) The development of effective methods of thinking.

The school librarian helps students to read more critically; he determines ways in which students evaluate what they read.

The school library sponsors student projects which require planning and the solution of problems.

The school library delegates to its student assistants work requiring judgment.

The school library conducts book-selection projects in which the students exercise critical judgment.

(2) The cultivation of useful work habits and study skills.

The librarian and the teachers together systematically plan the instruction for teaching students how to use books and libraries. The results of this instruction are tested periodically so that the development of the students' ability to use books and libraries can be measured and so that further instruction may be provided on the basis of the needs of individual students.

The librarian and the teachers prepare students to be intelligent users of the public library so that the students will become equipped to carry on a self-education program in adult life.

The school library provides for the observation of study methods of students in the library and, when necessary, instructs students about effective study skills and work habits.

The school librarian reports to teachers those pupils who need help in developing work habits and study skills necessary in specialized subject fields.

(3) The inculcation of social attitudes. (6) The development of social sensitivity. (7) The achievement of better personal-social adjustment.[4]

The librarian plans with the students the code of ethics to be observed in the library.

The librarian develops in students the proper attitude toward property (care of books and of equipment), a sense of responsibility (returning books on time, directing library activities, etc.), and social sensitivity in observing the rights of others (behavior in the library).

The library provides opportunities for group projects in which students learn to work co-operatively.

The library delegates to students responsibility for planning and carrying on some of the work of the library—student librarians, library committees, and group projects.

By means of displays and student projects, the library acquaints students with the work, interests, and activities of individual students or of the school as a whole.

The librarian co-operates actively in the guidance program of the school.

The librarian guides students to read materials which provide them with an understanding of contemporary society and the participation of the individual in societal groups.

(4) The establishment of a wide range of significant interests.

The library contains materials covering a wide range of subjects designed to meet and to arouse the interests of the students.

The library encourages the acquiring of new interests on the part of the students by means of effective publicity, exhibits, student projects, and other activities.

The librarian becomes acquainted with the personality and the background of as many students as possible so that she may, through reading guidance, develop or extend their interests.

(5) The development of increased appreciation of music, art, literature, and other aesthetic experiences.

The library provides audio-visual materials which the librarian encourages students to use.

The librarian develops an appreciation of literature through arousing the students' interest in literature, through encouraging students to read, and by helping students to formulate standards of literary criticism.

The library serves as an information center about music to be heard in the community and on the radio, about art exhibits in the community, and

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[4] The stated objectives are numbered in conformity with the list given on p. 338, but here grouped in relation to suggested activities.

about places and opportunities where students may carry on their own artistic or musical activities.

The library provides opportunities for students to display their own creative work and to record their feelings about art, music, and literature. The students arrange in the library exhibits pertaining to these areas.

The librarian encourages students to read informatively about music and art; to use materials in these fields in relation to their hobbies.

(8) The acquisition of important information.

The librarian and the teachers acquaint students with the sources of information.

The librarian guides students in the selection of materials and in the evaluation of these materials.

The librarian knows students individually so that she may provide materials to meet their variant needs, interests, and abilities.

The librarian provides materials for the classroom so that students may have access to materials when the need for them occurs during class activities.

(9) The building of physical health.

Proper conditions (lighting, ventilation, etc.) for work are maintained in the library.

The library provides materials necessary for the furtherance of the health program in the school.

The library sponsors exhibits relating to the building of physical health.

The suggestions listed above under each objective are neither definitive nor prescriptive. Different libraries will require different activities in accordance with the objectives of their schools. By attendance at faculty and committee meetings and by participating in the planning of the curriculum, the librarian can best realize the ways in which the library can function in the school program. Evaluation then becomes a matter of keeping records and of reporting quantitatively as well as interpretatively (*a*) what the library now does (citing specifically the relevant evidence); (*b*) what the library could do with its present facilities that it is not now doing; and (*c*) what the library potentially might do but cannot because of limitations in its facilities. With regard to many of the objectives (particularly 1, 2, 3, 6, and 7) listed in this section, standards of achievement expected at the different grade levels can be formulated and the progressive development of the students noted. Reading and circulation records can provide significant facts about the library's activities as well as about students' achievements with reference to objectives 4, 5, and 8. However, the evaluation should be made primarily in terms of

student behavior. Whenever possible, the librarian should note the immediate effect of the library on individual students, as well as any perceptible development in individual students resulting from contacts with the library.

VI. Library Records in Relation to Evaluation

In general, the evidence necessary for evaluation comes from three sources: the evidence obtained from the application of standards to a given library, the results of tests administered to students, and the data obtained by keeping records over a period of time. The first source has already been discussed; the second concerns an area about which comparatively little information exists. Current standardized tests are designed to measure the student's ability to use the library and his knowledge of certain basic reference tools. Although printed tests are available for the elementary-school, secondary-school, and college levels, many librarians compile the tests to be used in their schools. Most of the tests can be classified as achievement or diagnostic tests, depending upon the purpose for which they are used. Until more facts are known about the ways in which the results of the tests are used and interpreted, generalizations cannot be made about their functionalism; evidence is also needed to show whether the results of the tests measure development in the students from year to year, and whether they indicate the library's participation in effecting growth. The construction of tests to measure the effectiveness of the library in developing proper social attitudes of students, abilities to evaluate materials, and similar educational functions has received scant attention.

Library records constitute the third source of evidence. It is not the intent here to suggest that the librarian maintain a battery of records which involves the expenditure of considerable time and effort, yet it is probably true that more records should be kept in school libraries than has been customary. Records provide the evidence that prevents evaluation from becoming merely subjective opinion or casual observation. Suggestions for proposed changes or recommendations for long-range planning can be made more effectively when predicated upon the factual records of what has been done in the past.

To keep a variety of records with no purposive plan for their ultimate use holds little value. The following factors should be decided upon before determining what records to keep:

1. An understanding of the ways in which the records will be used.
2. Determining the methods by which data are to be collected for special records. These methods may take one or more of several forms: question blanks, interviews, surveys, anecdotal records, unit measurements, case histories, check-lists, observation, or record sheets which have been devised to meet the particular needs of the investigation.
3. Fixing a reliable span of time in which the records will be kept. Usually the academic year forms the time unit, but the librarian must know in what areas it is necessary to have evidence over a period of years before a valid judgment can be made about certain aspects of the work in his library. For a less comprehensive report a typical month, or even a week, in the school year may be selected for keeping records. The selection of an "average" month or week in an academic year, however, forms no easy task since it is not always possible to control or to predict what will take place in the school as a whole or in the classroom.

Among the records which school libraries may keep in order to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of their activities are the following:

Circulation records: circulation of books, periodicals, and other materials per capita teacher; circulation of books, periodicals, and other materials per capita student per grade level; interlibrary loans; number of reserve books used in the library each period; ratio between number of reserve books and number of nonreserve books circulated for home use per grade level.

Accession and inventory records: number of books and other materials on hand, number of books lost or discarded, number of books and other materials added.

Records showing the number of unfulfilled requests for materials and the reasons why the requests could not be met, i.e., material not owned by the library, material out on loan, not enough duplicate copies of reserve books, etc.

Records showing the number of reference questions answered for (*a*) students and (*b*) teachers; records showing the number of reference questions not answered and the reasons why they were not answered—lack of time, failure to find information, lack of necessary materials, etc.

Case histories of reading guidance which involved planning or which required a sequence of conferences with the student; records showing the number of known reading guidance cases which could not be undertaken and the reasons why.

Records showing the number of book lists, bibliographies, or similar lists made for (*a*) teachers, (*b*) individual pupils, (*c*) general library use, or (*d*) other purposes; the record to include for each item the number of entries and the time spent in its preparation. Records showing the number of book lists or similar lists that

could not be made although they were specifically requested by teachers or by students, and the reasons why they could not be made.

Attendance records: records showing the number of classes brought or sent to the library by teachers; records showing pupil and faculty attendance in the library each period of the day: records showing the number of school hours spent in the library per school year per student; records showing the number of visitors from outside the school.

Records briefly describing the student projects sponsored by the library.

Records showing the number of faculty meetings (general, departmental, or committee) attended by the librarians.

Any pertinent anecdotal records of student behavior and growth.

Records showing the number of reports about individual pupils which have been sent to teachers, parents, advisers, or others; number of consultations with teachers and parents about pupils.

Reading records of individual students showing materials read, source from which obtained, purpose, and motivation of reading.

Financial records.

Statements from faculty members and from students containing their opinions about the library and its service.

Records showing the amount of material sent to classrooms, and, if possible, records showing the use of this material; records showing the number of teachers requesting these loans and names of the subjects in which classroom collections were used.

Records for a small but reliable sample of time (possibly an average week) showing the work activities of the librarians; the records to indicate in time-units the amount of time spent in working directly with students, in working directly with teachers, in cataloging or processing books, in reference activities, in disciplining, in performing clerical work, in overtime work, in committee work for the school, etc.

Records for a small but reliable sample of time showing the activities of students and the types of materials used by students in the library during school periods; i.e., time profiles of the activities of individual students and frequency tabulations of the types of materials used in the following categories—textbook (owned by student), fiction book (owned by library), fiction book (not owned by library), magazine (owned by library), magazine (not owned by library), nonfiction book (owned by library), nonfiction book (not owned by library), etc.

Annual reports to the administrative officers of the school.

As already stated, the preceding list of records has not been presented as necessary for every school library to maintain continuously. (Although student assistants can keep many of the records, the work entailed for the librarian still is so great as to make it impossible for most libraries to keep all of the records all of the time.)

For the program of evaluation the kinds of records selected should be based upon what is to be evaluated and the purpose of the evaluation. Circulation, accession and inventory, attendance, and financial records provide facts about material aspects of the library. Records noting those services which a library was asked to perform but which it could not undertake because of limitations of staff, space, or time are significant in evaluation because they form one measure of performance in relation to demand. It seems important to determine not only the nature of existing library service but also whether that service meets the requirements of the school; with facts relating to both actual and potential service the librarian and the principal can then plan more effectively for the future. Records which present evidence necessary for evaluating the library's participation in the achievement of the school's objectives include the case histories of reading guidance, the records about student projects, the anecdotal records of student behavior and growth, the reports about individual pupils, and reading records. The time analysis of the librarian's work gives insight concerning the extent of the educational activities of the librarian as contrasted with the amount of time spent in technical or clerical work. Time profiles of what students do in the library not only have meaning for noting the educational functions of the library but they may also, like many of the other records kept in the library, furnish evidence about individual students which are of value to teachers and guidance workers.

The kinds of records kept in the library may be determined by some agency outside the school—the office of the supervisor of school libraries, state educational departments, accrediting associations, or library associations. These records may be sufficient for most purposes, but in a comprehensive evaluation of the school library they will probably have to be supplemented and expanded. Circulation records are a case in point.

The value of circulation figures has been questioned by many, and the objections can be sustained if the statistics are kept with no clear purpose of the ways in which the librarian can use them constructively. The distinction between circulation figures and reading records must be understood. Circulation figures can prove meaningful if they are kept in more detail than has been the case ordinarily. The daily circulation figures should be distributed first among the following broad categories—books (other than reserve books), periodicals, pamphlets, pictures, reserve books. If the library lends records, films, or other materials, then a column should be provided for them. (It is assumed here that circulation

figures concern only materials loaned from the library for overnight use or for longer periods.) In each main class of the Dewey system the daily circulation of books (other than reserve books) should be distributed by the grade level of the student withdrawing the book; a column for loans to teachers should also be provided. The record blank thus has for each class category spacing comparable to the following example in which the class number (here the "400's" or "Philology") is above the line and the columns for students (in Grades IX, X, XI, and XII) and for teachers are below: $\frac{400}{9\ 10\ 11\ 12\ T}$. Circulation figures for nonbook material may also be kept in the same detail. If the school wishes to gain insight concerning the extent to which the different grade levels use library materials, this record will provide evidence helpful in evaluation. If the records are kept over a period of years, interesting observations can be made about increases or decreases in the use of library materials by the same class. In those libraries having a policy of renewing books, the records should distinguish between renewals and other loans, otherwise figures representing quantitative per capita loans become distorted. Records of reserve books withdrawn for home use should be kept separately; these records may be kept in the same detail if the librarian wishes to note (within limitations) ratios between prescribed and collateral or nonprescribed reading in the different grade levels. Students soon become accustomed to adding their grade numeral after their signature on the book cards; the rest of the work involved in keeping detailed circulation records can be delegated to student assistants. Further information can be obtained if the Dewey classification scheme used in circulation records is broken down into smaller divisions in some of the main classes. Technical high schools may wish to keep circulation records for sub-classes in the applied and fine arts divisions. The grouping of all of the "500's" together has never shown satisfactorily the circulation of books in the physical sciences, the biological sciences, and mathematics.

The kinds of reading records to be kept in the school library depend upon the comprehensiveness of records relating to reading maintained in other departments of the school, upon the uses to which records will be put, and upon the space available for filing the records. Adequate reading records, kept by the students over a period of time, should include the following information for each item read: author, title, time spent in reading, number of pages read, source from which obtained, purpose (assignment, hobby information, nonacademic or "recreational" reading,

etc.) for which it was read, motivation for reading, and any other information which the school wishes to obtain. Whether the librarian directly supervises the keeping of these records or not, she should be familiar with any reading records of the students available in the school. Scores made on reading tests as well as the records of what has been read provide basic information for the librarian in reading guidance.

Although the evaluation of student reading falls outside the scope of this chapter, some comment should be made about the interpretation of students' reading records. The accumulation of facts which show only in quantitative terms what students have read is not sufficient in itself; more important are such factors as the following: the meanings and the values which the students derived from their reading, the students' ability to evaluate and to utilize what they read, the extent to which their reading changed, strengthened, or formulated their attitudes and ideas, and the degree to which predispositions affect the character of the students' reading. Librarians provide a significant contribution to the reading program of the school when they record any revealing facts about student reactions to and interpretations of reading which they have obtained through conversations with students. Reading guidance proceeds more realistically when based on a knowledge of what reading has done to a student or how he has done the reading. Growth in reading thus can be measured in the notation of the maturity and quality level of the student's reading and also in his ability to obtain the meaning of what he has read, to evaluate material, and to use it effectively.

In similar ways evidence obtained from other records can be used in the evaluation of the school library.

VII. Summary

The evaluation of a school library measures the degree to which the library achieves the objectives of the school and of the library. A valid evaluation of the school library cannot be made if the objectives, the educational policies, the nature of the curriculums, and other characteristic determinants of the school are ignored. It is also necessary to determine how much opportunity is given the library to participate in the program of achieving the school's objectives. For best results the evaluation of the library should form part of the evaluation of the total school. The purpose of the library and the facilities available for measuring its effectiveness determine the methods to be employed in the evaluation.

Evaluation comprises two main parts: (1) a preliminary appraisal

which measures the library against existing standards, and (2) the ultimate evaluation which measures the extent and effectiveness of the library's participation in the achievement of the school's objectives. Subsidiary but essential to these investigations are two other fact-finding activities: (1) obtaining information appropriate to the particular school which affects the interpretation of the evaluation and (2) keeping records which provide the evidence necessary for evaluation.

In general this chapter has considered the problems and the variables relating to evaluation. Since a blueprint for evaluation, applicable in any situation, cannot be made validly, the material presented here is primarily suggestive. The major premise has rested upon the need to extend the perspective concerning the evaluation of school libraries in view of the changed emphasis in education, which places more importance on the development of the student as an individual than on formal academic training. Evaluating the school library thus becomes something more than the counting of books or the notation of expenditure per student. The library, the same as all departments within the school, must help the student to meet present and probable future needs. The effect of the library on individual students and its contribution to their growth must be noted precisely and not left to conjecture. This yearbook has shown that the school library can participate dynamically in the program of the modern school; evaluation appraises the extent to which these educational functions of the library are achieved.

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CHAPTER XVII

AREAS FOR FURTHER INVESTIGATION

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I. INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have emphasized the place of the library in modern education. To a great extent the significance of the library is seen to be derivative; its major importance stems from its role as a contributing source, primarily through the curriculum. Nevertheless, the activities promoted through the library, as well as such internal matters as its organization and administration, are in large part based on assumptions, and until these assumptions are clearly stated and tested for their validity, procedures will be based on imitation and unverified hypothesis. This does not mean, of course, that present practice is faulty or inefficient; it does mean that a practice applicable in one teaching situation will not necessarily be universally applicable, but rather must be understood in the light of the particular area in which it operates. Subjective testimony may be highly suggestive and useful as affording models for imitation elsewhere, but the too-easy imitation of the program of one school by a school recognizing a different philosophy of education, or by a school in an entirely different social and geographic environment, may result in the library's being an ineffective educational instrument. In short, as educational ends differ, as the physical environment in which the school functions varies, so must the means be shaped to accord with the variation.

This chapter proposes to identify certain major areas where research in the school-library field is needed. Strictly speaking, many of the problems are not "school-library problems" at all, but since they impinge rather directly on the operations and methods of the school library, it is proper that they be pointed out in this Yearbook. Areas in which the problems fall may be classified as follows: government and administrative authority; internal management; use of the library.

II. Government and Administrative Authority

The values of providing library service to schools are no longer open to question. The easy availability of such service is implicit in the successful operation of the modern school, and the problem is not *whether* it should be provided, but rather *how* it may most effectively be provided. The methods commonly prevailing have been described in this Yearbook, and a thorough analysis of such methods may be found in the reports of two investigations: "A Study of Methods and Practices in Supplying Library Service to Public Elementary Schools in the United States" by Howard W. Brown[1] and "Public Library Service to Public School Children: Its Administration in Large American Cities" by Esther Stallmann.[2] There still remains the fundamental question of the relative effectiveness of the various ways in which the service should be extended. In the last analysis the real test of the superiority of one method over another is the effectiveness with which library objectives, as reflected in reading, are realized. Other considerations—such as status of the librarian under each type, administrative convenience, and even service costs—while not lacking in importance, are definitely secondary. We need to know how effectively basic objectives are achieved under different types of organization; it is only in such terms that studies of relative costs take on meaning. Differences of opinion as to the most efficient type of school-library organization can be resolved only in terms of evidence concerning the results achieved.

The question of school-library supervision and its effectiveness may also be raised. Briefly, what has happened in specific schools as a result of state or local supervision? What criteria are applied as a basis for recommending changes or improvements; how valid are such criteria; and how practicable have they been as borne out in school-library operation? Related to this is the effectiveness of standards as developed by the accrediting agencies. Chapter xiv throws some light on this point, and continuing studies should be undertaken both to measure the effect of the standards on school-library performance and to test the validity of the standards themselves.

One of the serious problems of education is how to provide adequate facilities in sparsely populated or economically underprivileged areas.

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[1] Doctor's dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 1941.

[2] Doctor's dissertation, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1942.

This problem is most acute in rural sections, and various efforts have been made to obviate the difficulty. Some of these efforts, with particular reference to library facilities, are described in chapter xii. Here is a field in which considerably more exploration, experimentation, description, and evaluation are needed. It is helpful, though frequently insufficient, to make some form of library service available; we need to know precisely what happens as a result of providing the facilities. In short, how satisfactorily do the various methods work, in providing many and diversified books, in providing books specifically related to the needs of the educational program, and in stimulating the use of the books available? To extend the privilege of book use (e.g., from a state library) is educationally meaningless unless the opportunity is accepted. What is proposed is a series of investigations throwing light on the efficacy of various methods of extending library service, as reflected in the actual reading which results. The descriptions given in chapter xii serve as an excellent point of departure for such studies.

III. Internal Management

The physical administration of the school library itself presents numerous problems which call for solution. Some of them become particularly evident in the construction of a new building or in the remodeling of an old one, when provision is to be made for school-library facilities. Many considerations are of a common-sense variety, or they are primarily the concern of the architect and the engineer; e.g., there must be sufficient light, the library room should be easily accessible to the students, there should be suitable tables and chairs. But there are other problems of a hardly less critical nature that deserve careful attention on the part of the librarian and the school administrator. An example of such a problem is: For how large a proportion of the student body shall seats be provided? Ideally, the answer should be given in the light of the entire school organization, so that some idea may be had of the numbers likely to be concentrated in the library at any one time. Related questions concern the amount of space to be allotted each seat and the proximity of the seats to the books and pamphlets. Existing standards with respect to these matters should be subject to continual scrutiny to determine their applicability *to particular institutions*. It would be strange, indeed, if identical conclusions were everywhere applicable. Schools which maintain both a library and a study hall require different seating standards from schools where the functions of the two are concentrated in a single

room. Studies aimed at answering the questions of appropriate space and its disposition would be welcome.

Another aspect of internal administration is the size of staff. Public libraries have developed standards based on circulation, but in the school library, where circulation is subordinate to personal assistance to pupils, another criterion is necessary. Probably the best single basis is the size of student body and faculty. The criterion is obviously imperfect, but it might well serve as the practicable basis for determining how large a library staff is necessary. Variations in staff size to conform to variations in teaching methods, regardless of enrolment, and the use of teachers as part-time librarians where the curriculum and teaching method require more individual assistance, should be studied in the light of both cost and pupil benefit.

Along with problems of staff size are those of staff quality. What kinds of persons make the most satisfactory school librarians? Related to this is the question: What training is necessary to prepare one for satisfactory school-library service? The latter question is considered in some detail in an earlier chapter, but a definite answer cannot as yet be given. This is so for two major reasons. In the first place, as conditions and educational philosophies vary, the qualifications necessary to implement the educational program must also vary; therefore, a single course of preparation may not be universally satisfactory. In the second place, the specific nature of school-library service, and especially the qualities, characteristics, and background necessary to perform it, are not sufficiently well known. Some light is thrown on this problem throughout the Yearbook, where the activities in which the school librarian is engaged are implied and frequently indicated in detail, but the central problem of means-and-ends—means in terms of personal characteristics and methods of preparation seen in relation to the achievement of the educational ends—is not clearly understood even by the librarians themselves. What, for example, is the place of formal library training in the preparation of the school librarian? What are the relative values of subject-matter courses and technical-education courses to the school librarian?

The obvious approach in answering these questions is by way of the well-known activity analysis, but this will supply only a partial answer. The essence of school librarianship is not revealed in the surface details of library performance, but it lies rather in the intellectual operations which give meaning to the day-by-day routines and procedures. Section II of this Yearbook includes a catalog of the numerous activities which de-

nominate school librarianship, but behind each of them lies the question: What must the librarian know to be able to handle this situation effectively? Activity analysis constitutes a first step, but it must be carried far enough to reveal both the processes and the abilities which underlie successful school-library performance.

No less important than personnel is the study of school-library finance. How much does the service cost? In so far as standards throw light on this question, it is usually in terms of so much per pupil or per faculty member or a definite proportion of the total educational expenditure. These approaches have the virtue of practicability, but they are subject to two criticisms. In the first place, the figures cited, when they are not guesses, are based on existing practice or on an average of available statistics. There is no sound basis for saying that because a certain amount is allocated to a certain service, that amount is "right." It may, in fact, be much too low for another type of library service or too liberal if the library service needed in another school situation is of a more elementary type. In the second place, they assume that a regular correspondence or relationship exists between enrolment and the cost of library service. To some extent this is true, for obviously the greater the number of persons to be served, the greater the cost. Nevertheless, it must be evident that the nature of school-library service, and hence its cost, derives from the content of the curriculum and the method of presenting it. As the course content emphasizes the use of many books and as the teaching method involves considerable pupil self-reliance, so that he is expected to explore widely among printed sources, so the cost of the service to be provided must expand. What is needed, therefore, is a series of studies, based on the curriculum under different conceptions of education, rather than on existing library practice, to arrive at proper bases for determining costs of library service. Attention should be called to work already done to arrive at costs of school-library service, the most comprehensive to date in the school-library field being Miss Mary E. Crookston's *Unit Costs in a Selected Group of High-School Libraries.*[3] As the title indicates, the study is centered in the school library itself and does not attempt to define proper school-library service in relation to the curriculum; and, as the author points out, the study is limited to labor costs only. Even within its defined scope, the study does not exhaust the possibilities for investi-

[3] United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 11, 1941. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942.

gation, and the author herself suggests the following as desirable investigations in unit costs:

1. A study by a controlled demonstration, to determine unit cost of adequate reference service.
2. A study, by a controlled demonstration, to determine unit cost of readers' advisory service adequate to meet the needs of the curriculum.
3. A study to investigate technical processes of routine school-library procedure, such as circulation, care of collection.
4. A more detailed study of cataloging costs over a longer period of time.
5. A study to investigate the techniques of school routines performed by the library staff, such as checking attendance, issuing permit slips, etc.

IV. Use of the Library

It has been made clear in the preceding chapters of this Yearbook that the library has become a dynamic element in the educational process. It is obvious, however, that no library, regardless of its physical equipment and book stock, is educationally "alive" unless it is used. Studies centered on library use should throw considerable light not only on matters of peculiar concern to library administration but, even more significant, on the nature of the educational process itself. It is of relatively little importance that so many books have been circulated in the course of a year; far more important it is to know *what* the pupils read—what *kinds* of books they read and from what *sources* they secure their material. If this information is studied against a background of everything else that is known about the pupils, a great deal will be learned of the place of reading in individual development. Wide reading is not a virtue in itself; it should be seen in relation to the kind of reading matter it consists of and to the kind of individual engaging in it. The obverse of this situation is no less significant: What about the individuals who fail to do much or any reading? What substitutes, if any, are employed, and what difference does it make in the development of the child? Also, what handicaps to reading are present and how may they be removed? It is at least possible that a large library with a large and diversified collection serves more to confuse than to enlighten some pupils; and unquestionably it is true that much of the technical paraphernalia designed to illuminate and act as guides to library resources remains incoherent and puzzling to the uninitiated. Precisely because individuals differ so profoundly in their psychological approach to books and libraries, it is impossible to set down any one "best" way of introducing them to the world of literature and

ideas; we need to know *how* individuals differ and therefore how this difference may be reflected in library organization and pedagogical techniques.

Several types of study are thus indicated, and they may be suggested without much elaboration.

1. A series of case studies of reading should be made as a basis for determining *why* pupils read what they do, the sources they prefer, the influences which directly lead to reading as well as the frustrations which prevent it. Most studies of this type stop with descriptions of what pupils read, and even these are commonly given in rather gross terms which obliterate significant distinctions between the reading of different types of individuals. Where comparisons are made they are usually between boys and girls, or among age or class groups. There should be many more investigations of this type as well as studies which compare the reading of groups defined in other ways: urban versus rural, pupils with a bookish background versus those limited to one or two sources, etc. In addition, however, there should be careful nonstatistical studies of the reading patterns of individuals, and the reading should be studied in relation to the kinds of individuals they are (as contrasted with their membership in one or more broad groups). Similarly, consideration should be given to individuals whose reading is limited or virtually nonexistent.

2. Studies are needed to determine how competently children and adolescents use a library. Investigations aimed at determining ability to use the library have usually taken the direction of constructing a test of acquaintance with library tools—reference books, the catalog, bibliographies. Too often these tests are more suited to library administrators than to library users. We need very much to know how pupils approach the search for materials and the handicaps and difficulties they experience in the search. This information is best secured in the library itself, by carefully observing the child in action. Perhaps the most appropriate test would consist of an assignment necessitating the use of various instruments and tools, and the child's ability judged by the result. With such knowledge at hand, we may then proceed realistically to a validation of paper-and-pencil tests of ability to use the library.

3. Studies should be made of the distribution of school-library resources, as well as of related sources and methods of providing library materials. There have been numerous studies of a descriptive character in this general area, one of the most comprehensive being B. Lamar John-

son's survey entitled *The Secondary-School Library.*[4] Valuable as these surveys are in presenting a generalized pattern of library service, they should be supplemented by local studies aimed not merely at description of facilities but, further, at determining what difference the presence of many sources makes in the reading of pupils. What differences appear in the reading of pupils exposed to a classroom collection, to a central school library, to a neighborhood public library branch, or to two or more of these in combination? Do many sources necessarily result in more reading, considered purely quantitatively; and do pupils depend on certain sources for specific types of books? The latter question implies consideration also of the kinds of literature actually made available in the various sources. For example, as between a school library and a public library in the same neighborhood or same community, what is the nature of their book collections? Do they supplement each other, do they duplicate widely, or do they function altogether independently of each other in the provision of materials? Such studies should not stop with a simple description in terms of physical facilities and book stock, but should be addressed to the question of effect as seen in the reading stimulated by each. (The study entitled *Libraries and Readers in the State of New York,* by Waples and Carnovsky,[5] explores this field, with particular relevance to school library and public library.)

Although the values of reading in connection with the school curriculum have been stressed, it should be recognized that these are not its only values. "Education as a lifetime process" should be more than a commendable slogan, and its realization must rest, in the last analysis, on wide and continuous reading. It is not putting it too strongly to say that when reading terminates with formal education, the education itself may be considered a failure.

The question may then be raised: What is the relation between reading patterns in childhood and adolescence and in adulthood? Is there apparent any carry-over; what is the nature of the carry-over; and does it differ appreciably among persons whose formative period reflects different types of reading behavior? Further, do persons who have not been

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[4] National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 17. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933.

[5] Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. 160.

exposed to wide reading in childhood differ perceptibly in their adult reading from persons who have been so exposed? In a word, does the opportunity for and the practice of wide reading during the school years make any difference in adult reading habits? We already have numerous studies of children's reading and of adult reading; we need to know the nature of the relationship between reading at the two chronological periods.

An even more important area of investigation, though vastly more difficult, is that of discovering the relationship between a child's intellectual development and his reading. Librarians and teachers have generally felt that reading constitutes a "good," that it contributes positively to mental growth. Until we know more about the effects of specific kinds of reading upon specific individuals or psychological types, our confidence in the contribution of reading will be based more on faith than on evidence. The general problem was thus expressed by the writer in a discussion of book selection for children:

> Behind the standards of book selection imposed one day and revoked the next looms the question: What difference does it make? *Is* a child necessarily better off for having read one type of literature or for having refrained from reading another type? . . . . And may not one raise the further question whether the reading which is "good" for one person may be valueless if not positively harmful for another? In short, the assumption that standards of selection somewhat arbitrarily established are proper guides in book selection may be questioned with reference to the ends achieved.[6]

A serious problem in any library, but especially so in a school library, is one of growth. No school library can permit its book collection to become "frozen" or static; changes and developments in the curriculum inevitably demand new books, and up-to-date publications frequently invigorate and shed new light on the teaching program. New books sometimes supplement the books on the shelves; sometimes they take the place of the older volumes. Also, because of new discoveries, new developments, the book on the shelf may become obsolete and educationally worthless.

No one can say what this process amounts to, quantitatively. To oversimplify the statement of the problem: What is the rate at which books

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[6] Leon Carnovsky, "Why Graduate Study in Librarianship?" *Library Quarterly*, VII (April, 1937), 252.

in the school library become obsolete or obsolescent? How many and specifically which books in wide use ten or even five years ago are used today? And how many books in great demand today will be useful ten years hence? A series of studies based on use as well as on book content would go far toward answering these questions, and the implications for the school library would be far-reaching.

An important area where intensive study seems desirable is the books themselves. Every librarian is familiar with the preference given the new publication, frequently on no sounder basis than its novelty. Indeed, it is altogether likely that the new book is generally inferior to the one its displaces. Would it not be possible to analyze a book in the light of such criteria as readability to the audience for which it is intended and applicability to the basic concepts which make up the particular segment of the curriculum for which it is designed? When a new book on, say, American history is published, in what respects is it superior (if it is) to books already in use? And are its superiorities extensive enough to warrant the expense of adding it to the library and relegating to a secondary position the book already held? The problem, stated more generally, calls for the development of criteria which will distinguish the better from the poorer book and the application of these criteria to extant literature.

The wide use of nonbook materials in school libraries today opens up a wide field for educational experimentation. How satisfactory is the radio as a teaching instrument, and how does its effectiveness compare with that of the book? This is simply a specific statement of the broad psychological problem of the relative effectiveness of the human senses in the learning process. Similarly, the great emphasis being devoted to the film should be justified by evidence as to its instructional power. Schools everywhere are embarking on programs of expansion, adding new devices and new techniques, and we need to know more about their educational effectiveness. This is particularly important from the practical standpoint, because the equipment involved is frequently quite expensive; and certainly a school is entitled to know something of its educational worth before making the investment.

V. Conclusion

This final chapter has attempted to bring together a few observations pertaining to the possibilities for future study in the school library and related fields. The entire volume abounds in description and prescrip-

tion; it portrays a functioning institution and offers suggestions for its improvement. Implicit is the conviction that the school library and increased reading constitute an integral part of the educational enterprise and that the quality of the educational outcome will be conditioned by the nature of the library facilities and services provided. That a real and significant relationship does exist is not likely to be seriously questioned, but it still remains worth asking what kinds of facilities for what kinds of school organization are likely to be educationally most satisfactory, and what significant results may be anticipated. It would be too much to expect the studies which have been suggested in this chapter to answer all questions, but they will surely go far toward clarifying the role of the library in general education.

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BIBLIOGRAPHY

In the following annotated bibliography an effort has been made to select the more significant and the more representative works in broad areas dealing with or relating to the library in general education. Periodical articles and, with some exceptions, parts of books have been excluded. Since the bibliography does not include all of the references cited in footnotes and in bibliographies throughout the Yearbook, the reader is advised to refer back to the chapters for further suggestions for reading.

ADAMS, HARLAN MARTIN. *The Junior-College Library Program: A Study of Library Services in Relation to Instructional Procedures.* Chicago and Stanford University, California: American Library Association and Stanford University Press, 1940. Pp. 92.

One hundred and thirty-seven junior colleges reported on their library program in response to questionnaires. On the basis of data received, the author sets up principles and practices for integrating library service with the curricular program and instructional methods of the junior college. One chapter is given to a description of the library program at Menlo Junior College.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS AND RESEARCH DIVISION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. Educational Research Service, Circular No. 6, 1939. *Certain Aspects of School Library Administration.* Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1939. Pp. 51.

The report presents statistics and interpretation of elementary- and secondary-school library administration in school systems in 184 cities above 30,000 population, and in 56 school systems in cities of less than 30,000 population. Five topics are considered: administrative control of school libraries, nature of library service provided, expenditures for school libraries, status of school librarians, and status of school-library supervision. Tables reporting practices in individual cities as well as summary tables and discussion of findings are presented.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES AND THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Joint Committee. *How Shall We Educate Teachers and Librarians for Library Service in the School?* New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. Pp. 74.

The first part of the report describes the content of existing curriculums preparing for library use and for library service in the school and it formulates guiding principles for the reorganization of such curriculums; the second part incorporates an outline and syllabi for a proposed library-science curriculum for teachers and teacher-librarians.

BEALS, RALPH, and BRODY, LEON. *The Literature of Adult Education.* New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1941. Pp. 493.

The areas of adult education are considered first in a descriptive summary account which is followed by references to standard works, bibliographies, and monographs on special aspects of the field.

BEUST, NORA. *School Library Administration: An Annotated Bibliography.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 7, 1941. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941. Pp. 82.

Selected references in books, periodicals, and pamphlets on the organization and administration of school libraries. The 716 entries are grouped into six main divisions: objectives; external administrative control, including relationships with other institutions; internal organization and management; supervision; evaluation, standards, measurements, surveys; finances, budgets, reports.

BRANSCOMB, HARVIE. *Teaching with Books: A Study of College Libraries.* Chicago: Association of American Colleges and American Library Association, 1940. Pp. 239.

Branscomb devoted a year to studying the extent to which the work of the college library is integrated with the work of the college as a whole. *Teaching with Books* presents the results of his inquiries, of his visits to 60 college libraries, of investigations undertaken for the study, and of the analysis of the literature of the field. Educational functions and activities of the college library are stressed rather than administrative machinery. The use of the library by students, the relationships between library use and academic achievement, and the problems involved in making books accessible (including "centralization versus decentralization") receive emphasis.

BROWN, HOWARD WASHINGTON. *A Study of Methods and Practices in Supplying Library Service to Public Elementary Schools in the United States.* Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1941. Pp. 148.

The author states the purpose of his study as "to determine (1) the methods which are used as the principal means of supplying library service to public elementary schools in cities in the United States with a total population of 10,000 and over, (2) the extent to which these methods are used in geographic sections and throughout the country as a whole, (3) the extent to which these methods are used in cities grouped according to total population, (4) the methods which are used as supplementary or additional means of supplying library service, and (5) the nature of and the extent to which certain public elementary-school library practices are used" (p. 2).

CECIL, HENRY L., and HEAPS, WILLARD A. *School Library Service in the United States: An Interpretative Survey.* New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1940. Pp. 334.

The function and administration of school-library service in the educational program are described and interpreted under eight major headings: (1) importance of school-library service in the modern educational program; (2) rise and development of school-library service in its relation to significant movements in education; (3) state participation in school-library service; (4) large area participation in school-library

service: rural schools; (5) local administration of school-library service; (6) analysis of school-library service programs in certain cities under co-operative and school-board administration; (7) federal participation in school-library service; and (8) a basic platform for the development of school-library service.

CHANCELLOR, JOHN MILLER, *et al. Helping the Reader toward Self-Education.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1938. Pp. 111.

"The experiences and research of readers' advisers have furnished some practical working principles on reader guidance work which may be applied to any well-staffed library, large or small. The object of the book is to aid and encourage libraries, especially medium-sized and small ones, in developing some form of advisory service for readers."—*Booklist.*

COULBOURN, JOHN. *Administering the School Library.* Guide to Action Series No. 3. Minneapolis: Educational Publishers, Inc., 1942. Pp. 125.

A school administrator writes about the school library for other school administrators. The place of the library in modern education, the principal's or other school administrator's responsibilities, and the ways in which the library can participate in total school programs (teaching, reading, instructional supervision, guidance, and curricular development) receive emphasis. Techniques for evaluating school libraries are presented.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *Social Services and the Schools.* Washington: National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1939. Pp. 147.

"A systematic analysis of co-operative relationships between public schools and public health, welfare, and recreation agencies and public libraries"—Foreword. Chapter iv, "Administration of Community Library Services," proposes a single authority to direct and to co-ordinate the libraries, the schools, and the recreational program of the community.

Evaluation of Secondary Schools: General Report on the Methods, Activities and Results of the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards. Washington: Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards, 1939. Pp. 526.

This account of the history of the Study, of its work and procedures, forms a significant contribution to the development of the qualitative evaluation of secondary schools. Measuring the effectiveness of the library has been considerably affected by the work of the Study. Other volumes in the series to be read in relation to the general report include: *How To Evaluate a Secondary School* (1940 edition), *Evaluative Criteria* (1940 edition), *Educational Temperatures* (1940 edition), and *Evaluation of Secondary Schools: Supplementary Reprints.*

FARGO, LUCILE F. *The Library in the School.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1939 (third edition). Pp. 552.

The standard textbook in the school-library area considers organization and techniques of school-library service in terms of the educational functions of the library. One of the most comprehensive volumes in the field, it constitutes a compendium of currently accepted practice and administrative organization.

FARGO, LUCILE F. *Preparation for School Library Work.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. Pp. 190.

After presenting in detail elements which affect the preparation of school librarians (positions available, school-library work, school-library standards and certification, professional migration, consolidation of school-library service, trends in library education, and other factors), the author considers preparation for school librarianship in relation to education for librarianship in general and in relation to teacher-education.

FENNER, PHYLLIS. *Our Library.* New York: John Day, 1942. Pp. 174.

Informal essays about activities, experiences, books and reading, pupils, and librarian in a progressive elementary-school library.

GARDINER, JEWEL, and BAISDEN, LEO B. *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1941. Pp. 161.

This basic book in the field of elementary-school library administration is addressed to school librarians, superintendents, principals, teacher-librarians, classroom teachers, librarians in public libraries, and instructors in library schools. Although procedures and practices of library service are described, the work stresses the educational functions of the elementary-school library and includes several chapters on reading.

GRAY, WILLIAM S. (ed.). *Reading in General Education: Report of the Committee on Reading in General Education.* Washington: American Council on Education, 1940. Pp. 464.

A consideration by eleven specialists of the more significant problems, basic issues, recent trends, current practices, and techniques of appraisal in the area of reading, with particular reference to junior colleges and high schools. Chapter xi, "The Library," by Wight and Carnovsky, discusses the library's participation in the reading program, functions of the library, instruction in the use of the library, stimulating the use of the library, and related administrative aspects of library service.

HAYGOOD, WILLIAM CONVERSE. *Who Uses the Public Library.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938. Pp. 137.

A survey of the patrons of the circulation and reference departments of the New York public library—their use of the library, what they read, and their opinions of the library.

HELLER, FRIEDA M., and LABRANT, LOU L. *Experimenting Together: The Librarian and the Teacher of English.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1938. Pp. 84.

Actual experiences of a school librarian and a teacher of English who planned and worked co-operatively in developing the students' reading activities in one school.

JOHNSON, ALVIN. *The Public Library—a People's University.* New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1938. Pp. 85.

Material gathered in visits to public libraries in which the author sought "indications of how libraries function in the general adult educational movement, what atti-

tudes librarians exhibit on the development of work of this kind, what the future position of the library may be."—Preface.

JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. *The Secondary-School Library.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. (National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 17.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933. Pp. 110.

The Johnson study today has value primarily for its historical significance. Undertaken as a part of the National Survey of Secondary Education, the investigation reports activities in a selected group of outstanding secondary-school libraries, presents data regarding the libraries of 390 schools, interprets library problems in terms of the use made of libraries, and suggests problems for research in the field. One of the pioneer studies in the evaluation of school libraries, the monograph combines theoretical considerations with the data obtained in the survey of library objectives, library facilities, and library use in the 390 schools.

LANCASTER, JOHN HERROLD. *The Use of the Library by Student Teachers.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. 138.

A study of how institutions training secondary-school teachers can bring about more effective use of the library by student teachers. In order to determine the present situation regarding the use made of the library by student teachers, their knowledge about the library and its resources, and the extent of library instruction they have received, Lancaster collected data through tests and record-forms from student teachers in 31 colleges in the area of the North Central Association. Findings are presented and suggestions made for needed improvement.

LATHROP, EDITH A. and KEESECKER, WARD W. *Laws Affecting School Libraries.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 7, 1940. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941. Pp. 136.

Part I. "Summary of School-Library Legislation for All States" (arranged into seven divisions: procedures for establishment, financial support, administration and supervision, books, librarians, relationships with state library agencies, and relationships with public libraries).

Part II. "Digests of School Library-Legislation for Each State."

LEARNED, WILLIAM S. *The American Public Library and the Diffusion of Knowledge.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1924. Pp. 89.

A "classic" in the literature of librarianship which describes the types of knowledge and discusses the public library as an agency for the systematic diffusion of knowledge.

LENROW, ELBERT. *Reader's Guide to Prose Fiction: An Introductory Essay, with Bibliographies of 1,500 Novels Selected, Topically Classified, and Annotated for Use in Meeting the Needs of Individuals in General Education.* New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. 371.

The subject list of fiction groups novels into three functional divisions: "The Individual's Need for Entertainment and 'Escape'," "The Individual and His Personal Environment," and "The Individual and His Social Environment." These three ma-

jor parts are extensively subdivided into further topics. Introductory chapters include material on prose fiction in general education and the reading of fiction. Novels are classified on the basis of adolescent reading interests and of personal and social factors identified with adolescents. The bibliography constitutes an indispensable tool in reading guidance; the usefulness of the bibliography, moreover, is not restricted to work with adolescents.

The Library as a School Function and Activity. Newark, New Jersey: New Jersey Secondary School Teachers' Association, 1940. Pp. 87.

Librarians in the secondary schools of New Jersey report the more challenging and emerging library practices through which the school library participates more extensively in the educational program of the school. Based on returns from 165 schools, the report describes library activities which relate to guidance, meeting classroom needs, participating in school projects, community activities, assisting teachers, pupil development, and other services. Throughout, the emphasis centers in the broader educational and social functions of the library in the school program.

NATIONAL COMMISSION ON CO-OPERATIVE CURRICULUM PLANNING. *The Subject Fields in General Education.* New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., Inc., 1941. Pp. 239.

Chapter xii, "The School Library," by Elizabeth Scripture, interprets the school library in terms of the philosophy of general education, notes the contribution of the library in promoting growth in pupils in their use and evaluation of materials, and indicates the library's participation in an educational scheme which stresses maximum growth of each pupil in a "life-centered curriculum."

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Joint Committee. *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together in School Library Service: Report of the Joint Committee.* Washington: National Education Association, 1941. Pp. 64.

The most authoritative presentation and interpretation of the relationships existing between schools and public libraries with regard to the problem of library service to school pupils. Part I lists and discusses the principles of school-library service; Part II includes case studies of procedures in school and public library relationships in ten selected communities; Part III summarizes basic principles and makes proposals for strengthening school and public library relationships.

RANDALL, WILLIAM M., and GOODRICH, FRANCIS, L. D. *Principles of College Library Administration.* Chicago: American Library Association and University of Chicago Press, 1941 (second edition). Pp. 249.

A practical and systematic treatment of the functions, organization, finances, staff, physical plant, book selection, costs, and records of the liberal-arts college library. The library in relation to students and to faculty and topics dealing with the acquisition and accessibility of books receive emphasis. The authors have based their materials upon experience and upon data obtained during surveys of numerous college libraries.

RAUSHENBUSH, ESTHER. *Literature for Individual Education.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. 262.

Description of the exploratory courses in literature for Freshmen at Sarah Lawrence College in which new and realistic instructional methods use literary materials to find and to meet student interests and needs. Particular attention is given to experiences and reactions of students to this approach to books. An appendix, "The Books the Freshmen Read," containing annotations which describe what students are apt to get out of books, can be used in reading guidance.

ROSENBLATT, LOUISE M. *Literature as Exploration.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. 340.

Rosenblatt's theory that the teaching of literature can be made dynamic and significant by relating it to the social, personal, and cultural interests and needs of students has exercised considerable influence on the teaching of literature in the schools today. Although addressed mainly to teachers of literature in colleges and high schools, the book has particular value and meaning for librarians.

Rural School Libraries. Washington: Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, 1936. Pp. 111.

The status of rural school libraries is analyzed and described by authorities in the field. Chapter headings include: "Reading Problem in Rural Schools," "Administrative Control of School Libraries," "Financial Support of School Libraries," "Book Selection for the School Library," "Organization, Administration, Care and Use of the School Book Collections," "Library and the Curriculum," "State School Library Supervision," and "Responsibilities of Teacher-Training Agencies." Also includes an extensive bibliography on rural school libraries.

RUSSELL, JOHN DALE (ed.). *New Frontiers in Collegiate Instruction.* Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1941, Vol. XIII. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. 248.

Includes "The Use of the Library in Instruction" by Louis R. Wilson, which describes influences that increased the use of the library in college instruction. Methods of effectively integrating library use and class instruction are proposed.

SIEBENS, CAROLINE R., and BARTLETT, WARREN L. *The Librarian and the Teacher of Science.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. Pp. 71.

The second pamphlet in the "Experimenting Together" series describes the reading project which the librarian and the biology teacher conducted in Brookline High School. Other co-operative ventures between the two departments are noted, and an appendix contains a book list entitled "Biology and the World of Books."

The Teaching of Reading: A Second Report. Thirty-sixth Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1937. Pp. 442.

The purpose of the Yearbook as stated in the Introduction is "(*a*) to trace briefly the developments in the field of reading during the last decade and to identify the major problems that schools face today; (*b*) to provide in specific and nontechnical

terms the information needed by teachers and school officers in reorganizing and improving instruction, especially by making specific constructive recommendations during the last decade; and (c) to provide, as a guide in the case of debatable issues, tentative suggestions to be formulated after careful and deliberate study by a group of qualified experts."

WALRAVEN, MARGARET KESSLER, and HALL-QUEST, ALFRED L. *Library Guidance for Teachers.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1941. Pp. 308.

A guide designed to acquaint secondary-school teachers with general library procedures, reference and source materials, teacher-library co-operation, and the use of the library.

WAPLES, DOUGLAS, and CARNOVSKY, LEON. *Libraries and Readers in the State of New York: The State's Administration of Public and School Libraries with Reference to the Educational Values of Library Services.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. 160.

The volume reports an investigation of the reading of high-school students, teachers, and parents in two New York State communities ("Extown" and "Wytown") having above-average schooling facilities and an above-average supply of good reading matter. The quantity and quality of reading material obtained from different sources by different groups of readers, the influences of the distributing agencies upon reading, resultant administrative problems for schools and public libraries, and proposed recommendations form the central topics of this objective and important study. Made for the Secondary Education Division of the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York.

WILSON, LOUIS R. *The Geography of Reading: A Study of the Distribution and Status of Libraries in the United States.* Chicago: American Library Association and University of Chicago Press, 1938. Pp. 481.

The volume "presents the findings of an extensive survey of the distribution of libraries and library resources in the various states and regions of the nation. It also shows the relation of this distribution to that of bookstores and rental libraries, of magazines and newspapers, and to the status of other social institutions and media of communication of ideas such as the school, the moving picture theater, and the radio." —Preface.

APPENDIX

LIBRARY RESOURCES IN THE UNITED STATES

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Few data concerning the nature and diversity of the total library resources of the nation have been included in the Yearbook. These resources are more extensive than is generally known and many of them are available to teachers, students, and the public generally. State libraries, state library extension agencies, university and agricultural extension divisions, and many other types of libraries regularly lend materials with a minimum of restriction or cost. Their use by teachers for professional purposes and by schools in rural areas could be greatly extended through carefully planned co-operation by school and library authorities at state, county, and municipal levels. A number of studies have appeared in the past five years which have dealt comprehensively with the distribution of these resources. In 1938 Wilson[1] presented an extended array of tables relating to all types of libraries in the United States. Joeckel,[2] in a monograph prepared for the Advisory Committee on Education, described the service of various types of libraries, including federal libraries, and estimated the amount of money which would be required to inaugurate and maintain a program of federal aid to libraries in the forty-eight states on the basis of relative need.

Two additional summaries of library service have been published in tabular form by Chapman[3] and Settelmayer.[4] The summary by Chapman relates to library service provided through W.P.A. Such service has been much more extensive in rural areas than has been generally known and, in certain states, notably those of the Southeast, has represented a greater total annual expenditure for

[1] Louis R. Wilson, *The Geography of Reading*. Chicago: American Library Association and University of Chicago Press, 1938.

[2] Carleton B. Joeckel, *Library Service*. Advisory Committee on Education Staff Study Number 11. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

[3] E. A. Chapman, "W.P.A. Library Demonstrations Serve Millions of Readers," *American Library Association Bulletin*, XXXIV (April, 1940), 225–31.

[4] J. C. Settelmayer, "Public Library Service in the United States, 1941," *American Library Association Bulletin*, XXXVI (June, 1942), 399–402.

public library service than that regularly provided by the cities and counties of the states concerned. Settelmayer has brought the data concerning public libraries, including W.P.A. libraries, down through 1941 and has devoted special consideration to the areas which lack public library service.

A recent study by Brown[5] deals with the methods and practices of supplying library service to public elementary schools in the United States. While the study is limited to schools in cities with 10,000 population and over, it is very useful in indicating means which might be adapted to the provision of service to county schools in rural areas.

Since 1870 the United States Office of Education has issued statistics of various types of libraries and is the principal agency to which the nation has looked for information on this subject. During this period it has issued a dozen or more reports, bulletins, or chapters in the biennial reports of the United States Commissioner of Education. The Library and the recently established Library Service Division of the Office of Education supply data whenever possible concerning library facilities.

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[5] Howard W. Brown, *A Study of Methods and Practices in Supplying Library Service to Public Elementary Schools in the United States.* Thesis, University of Pennsylvania, 1941 (private printing).

The following table summarizes by type the latest compilations of library resources of the nation.

APPROXIMATE NUMBER OF LIBRARIES, NUMBER OF VOLUMES, ANNUAL EXPENDITURES, AND POPULATION SERVED BY MAJOR LIBRARY GROUPS IN THE UNITED STATES

Type of Library and Year for Which Data Were Reported	Number of Libraries	Number of Volumes	Annual Expenditure	Population Served
Public, including W.P.A., 1941	7,508	115,000,000	$55,376,311	96,221,760[a]
State, 1937	136	12,000,000	2,398,054	Libraries served various clienteles[b]
School, central libraries, 1934–35	27,836	28,346,250	6,868,251 (capital outlays excluded)	7,209,674 pupils[c d]
School, classroom libraries, 1934–35	33,467	No data	No data	No data[c]
College and university, 1937–38	1,462	75,722,046	17,588,240	1,346,856[d]
Federal, 1941	131	12,935,285	No data	No data[e]
Special, 1935	1,500	15,000,000	No data	No data[f]

[a] J. C. Settelmayer, "Public Library Service in the United States, 1941," *American Library Association Bulletin*, XXXVI (June, 1942), 399–402.

[b] These data were prepared by Paul A. T. Noon, Director of the Ohio State Library, June 1, 1937. They covered the holdings and expenditures of state libraries, state library extension agencies, legislative reference libraries, state law or supreme court libraries, state archives, and state historical commissions. They did not include the holdings or record the expenditures of university extension divisions.

[c] "Statistics of Public-School Libraries, 1934–35," *Biennial Survey of Education*, Vol. II, chap. v, pp. 7, 9, 26. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1937. There are approximately 250,000 individual schools in the United States embraced within 2,901 city and 3,426 county school systems (total 6,327). Reports on the libraries of more than one-half of the individual schools were not received by the United States Office of Education. Failure to report accurately and consistently upon the libraries makes evaluation of school libraries very difficult.

[d] "Statistics of Higher Education, 1937–38," *Biennial Survey of Education*, Vol. II, chap. iv, pp. 231, 238, 252, 279. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1940.

[e] "Libraries of the United States Government." United States Office of Government Reports, December 15, 1941 (mimeographed).

[f] In 1938 Joeckel, in *Library Service* (p. 37), reported that 1,500 special libraries in 1935 contained approximately 22,000,000 volumes, of which 7,000,000 were duplicated in other libraries. The net holdings, consequently, were 15,000,000 volumes.

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CONSTITUTION OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

(As Revised at the 1924 Meeting and Amended in 1926 1928, 1929, 1932, and 1933)

ARTICLE I

Name. The name of this Society shall be "The National Society for the Study of Education."

ARTICLE II

Object. Its purposes are to carry on the investigation of educational problems, to publish the results, and to promote their discussion.

ARTICLE III

Membership. Section. 1. There shall be two classes of members—active and honorary.

Section 2. Any person who is desirous of promoting the purposes of this Society is eligible to active membership and shall become such on payment of dues as prescribed.

Section 3. Active members shall be entitled to vote, to participate in discussion, and, under certain conditions, to hold office.

Section 4. Honorary members shall be entitled to all the privileges of active members, with the exception of voting and holding office, and shall be exempt from the payment of dues.

A person may be elected to honorary membership by vote of the Society on nomination by the Board of Directors.

Section 5. The names of the active and honorary members shall be printed in the Yearbook.

Section 6. The annual dues for active members shall be $2.50. The election fee for active members shall be $1.00.

ARTICLE IV

Officers. Section 1. The Officers of the Society shall be a Board of Directors, a Council, and a Secretary-Treasurer.

Section 2. The Board of Directors shall consist of six members of the Society and the Secretary-Treasurer. Only active members who have contributed to the Yearbooks shall be eligible to serve as directors, and no member who, under the provisions of Section 3, has been elected for two full terms in immediate succession shall be eligible to re-election to succeed himself for a third term.

Section 3. The Board of Directors shall be elected by the Society to serve for three years, beginning on March first after their election. Two members of the Board shall be elected annually (and such additional members as may be necessary to fill vacancies that may have arisen).

This election shall be conducted by annual mail ballot of all active members of the Society. A primary ballot shall be secured in October, in which the active members shall nominate from a list of members eligible to said Board. The names of the six persons receiving the highest number of votes on this primary ballot shall be submitted in November for a second ballot for the election of the two members of the Board. The two persons (or more in the case of special vacancies) then receiving the highest number of votes shall be declared elected.

Section 4. The Board of Directors shall have general charge of the work of the Society, shall appoint its own Chairman, shall appoint the Secretary-Treasurer, and the members of the Council. It shall have power to fill vacancies within its membership, until a successor shall be elected as prescribed in Section 3.

Section 5. The Council shall consist of the Board of Directors, the chairmen of the Society's yearbook and research committees, and such other active members of the Society as the Board of Directors may appoint from time to time.

Section 6. The function of the Council shall be to further the objects of the Society by assisting the Board of Directors in planning and carrying forward the educational undertakings of the Society.

ARTICLE V

Publications. The Society shall publish the yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education and such supplements as the Board of Directors may provide for.

ARTICLE VI

Meetings. The Society shall hold its annual meetings at the time and place of the American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association. Other meetings may be held when authorized by the Society or by the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE VII

Amendments. Proposals to amend this Constitution may be made by the Board of Directors or by petition of twenty-five or more active members of the Society. Such proposals shall be submitted to all active members for a mail vote and shall be declared adopted if approved by two-thirds of the members voting thereon.

MINUTES OF THE SAN FRANCISCO MEETING OF THE SOCIETY

February 21 and 23, 1942

The Society held two sessions at the San Francisco meeting, the first, Saturday evening, February 21, in the auditorium of the Veterans' Building, the second, Monday afternoon, February 23, in Humboldt Hall at the Empire Hotel.

First Session—Saturday, February 21, 1942, 8:00 p.m.

This session was devoted to a discussion of the Forty-first Yearbook, Part I, *Philosophies of Education,* which had been prepared by a committee under the chairmanship of Professor John S. Brubacher of Yale University. The meeting was called to order by the presiding officer, Dr. William C. Bagley, Chairman of the Board of Directors.

The program for this meeting was organized in the form of a panel discussion, the panel including, besides Chairman Brubacher, one representative of each of the five systems of philosophy covered by the yearbook. William H. Kilpatrick and Frederick S. Breed, members of the committee and contributors to the yearbook, participated in the discussion as representatives of experimentalism and realism, respectively. Elmer H. Staffelback, Professor of Education, San José State College, was the panel representative for idealism, which is treated in the chapter of the yearbook written by Professor H. H. Horne, New York University. Dean James L. Hagerty, Saint Mary's College, California, defended the point of view presented in the chapter written by Mortimer J. Adler of the University of Chicago, whose basic concepts are closely allied to Aristotelianism. Father Wilfred Mallon was the able substitute for his colleague at St. Louis University, Father William J. McGucken, who contributed the chapter explaining the Catholic view of the aims of education.

The program of this session, a departure from the traditional form of the Society's meetings, was well received. For nearly two hours the audience followed with intense interest the friendly argument of scholarly representatives of different schools of thought as each defended his own belief or challenged the position of another member of the panel on questions pertaining to the nature and destiny of man, knowledge and how it is to be acquired, moral education, the relation of the individual to society, and the role of freedom and of authority in a democratic theory of education. At the close of the panel discussion, the interest of the audience was evidenced by a number of questions from the floor, more than could be considered by the panel because of the lateness of the hour.

SECOND SESSION—MONDAY, FEBRUARY 23, 1:45 P.M.

This session, a joint meeting with the American Educational Research Association, was devoted to a review of Part II of the Forty-first Yearbook, *The Psychology of Learning*. Professor T. R. McConnell, chairman of the Society's committee for the yearbook under discussion and president of the American Educational Research Association, presided during the meeting. The following program was presented.

I. "The Scope and Purpose of the Yearbook"

T. R. MCCONNELL, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

II. "Critiques of the Yearbook"

HAROLD A. CARTER, Assistant Professor of Education, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.

STEPHEN M. COREY, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

III. "The Importance of Research on Learning in the School Situation"

CHARLES H. JUDD, 4418 Circle View Boulevard, Los Angeles, Calif.

The general discussion which followed this program was punctuated by questions from the audience to participants in the program. It was enlivened by Chairman McConnell's citations to Dr. Judd's own writings in rejoinder to the latter's criticisms of the yearbook.

Following the program at the Saturday evening session, a short business meeting was convened at the call of Chairman Bagley, who read the following resolutions (subsequently published in *School and Society*) which were unanimously adopted by vote of the members present.

GUY MONTROSE WHIPPLE

The National Society for the Study of Education regrets the death on August 1, 1941, of Guy Montrose Whipple, for twenty-five years Secretary and Editor. It was largely through Dr. Whipple's devoted and efficient activities in its behalf that the Society has attained its present status and influence as an outstanding organization for the promotion of educational research, the publication of the findings of research, and the evaluation of those findings through open and impartial discussion. Although an account of Dr. Whipple's life and distinguished services to the Society and to the cause of education has been prepared for and published in the Forty-first Yearbook, the Society takes the occasion of this open meeting to express the keen sense of great loss that it has sustained and to convey to Dr. Whipple's family its sincere sympathy.

PAUL HENRY HANUS

Through the death of Paul Henry Hanus, December 14, 1941, the National Society for the Study of Education lost one of its earliest active members, one of the

early presidents (1909–10), and one of the five persons who up to the present time have been elected to honorary membership.

Professor Hanus has been a prominent leader in American education for more than fifty years. A native of Germany, brought to the United States by his parents at the age of four, he became in 1890 a professor of pedagogy in what is now Colorado State College of Education. In the following year he went to Harvard University as assistant professor of the history and art of teaching, the first professorial appointment at Harvard in the field of education, as such, and one of the first university appointments in this field in the United States. He became a professor in 1901 and served in that capacity until 1921, when at the age of sixty-six he retired as professor emeritus.

Professor Hanus rendered pioneer service in placing the university study of education on a permanent and respected basis. His leadership also extended to many other fields. For the ten years 1909 to 1919 he was a member of the Massachusetts State Board of Education; in 1911–12 he directed the first survey of the New York City public schools, which was the first educational survey to appraise the work of the schools by the use of objective, standardized tests; in 1914 he visited New Zealand to study the educational problems of that dominion at the request of its government; he was a recognized authority on vocational education, serving as chairman of the Massachusetts State Commission on Industrial Education, 1906–09, and as chairman of the executive board of the Boston Vocational Bureau, 1909–17; he was the founder of the Harvard Teachers Club, which in the spring of 1941 celebrated its fiftieth anniversary in his honor; he was an author of distinction, and his last book, *Adventures in Education,* was published in 1937 when he was eighty-two years of age.

The Society expresses its deep regret at the loss of one of its most distinguished members, a sense of loss tempered only by the knowledge that during his long life he made such notable and enduring contributions to the cause of education. The Society extends its sincere sympathy to Mrs. Hanus and to those so closely associated with his work in Harvard University.

SYNOPSIS OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS OF THE SOCIETY DURING 1942

I. San Francisco Meeting of the Board

San Francisco, California: Hotel Empire, February 21 and 22

Present: Directors Bagley (Chairman), Freeman, Goodykoontz, Kefauver, Stoddard, Tyler, and Henry (Secretary); and by invitation, Messrs. Douglass, Carnovsky, and Jones

1. The Secretary reported that in the election in December, 1941, Professors William A. Brownell and W. W. Charters were elected to the Board for a term of three years, beginning March 1, 1942.

2. Mr. Tyler was elected Chairman of the Board for the year beginning March 1, 1942.

3. The report of the audit of the accounts of the Treasurer of the Society for the period ending August 31, 1941, signed by John J. Leonard, Certified Public Accountant, Lynn, Mass., was received and approved by the Board.

4. A committee consisting of Messrs. Stoddard (chairman), Tyler, and Henry was appointed to confer with the publishers for the purpose of arranging for an inventory of the stock of yearbooks on hand and for the settlement of the balance of royalties due the Society.

5. Resolutions prepared by Chairman Bagley in consideration of the deaths during the past year of Guy Montrose Whipple and Paul H. Hanus were approved for presentation at the annual meeting of the Society.

6. Mr. Tyler reported the actions of the Council of the American Association for the Advancement of Science during the year. He was requested to represent the Society on the Council for another year.

7. Miss Goodykoontz reported the plans of the National Committee on Coordination in Secondary Education and was requested to serve as the representative of the Society on this Committee for the ensuing year.

8. The Board agreed that it would be proper and desirable to maintain a consultative relationship with the Committee on Education and National Defense and asked Miss Goodykoontz to represent the Society in this relationship.

9. Messrs. Tyler and Stoddard reported on the activities and plans of the American Council on Education. Mr. Stoddard was appointed as the Society's representative for this year.

10. Mr. Henry was reappointed Secretary-Treasurer and Editor for a term of three years beginning March 1, 1942.

11. Mr. Kefauver reported that satisfactory progress had been made in the preparation of the yearbook, *Vocational Education.*

12. In compliance with the request of Dean Wilson, chairman of the committee for the yearbook, *The Library in General Education,* Mr. Leon Carnovsky was appointed to membership on this committee. Mr. Carnovsky was present for a while during the meeting of the Board and presented a revision of the outline for this yearbook, which was approved.

13. The Board authorized an additional appropriation of approximately $500 for the use of the committee for the yearbook on language arts. In accordance with the request of Dean Trabue, chairman of the yearbook committee, Miss Mildred Dawson was appointed a member of this committee.

14. Mr. Kefauver presented a proposal for a yearbook on the subject of administration. An outline of tentatively defined chapters was submitted and discussed by members of the Board. It was decided that the yearbook should be entitled "Educational Administration" and that such problems as the relation of schools to other public services, the participation of federal, state, and local government in the support and control of school systems, the administration of higher institutions, and, possibly, public administration in general should be dealt with in the yearbook. The proposal was thereupon approved and $1,500 appropriated for expenses of the committee. The suggested personnel of the committee was approved and Mr. Kefauver was authorized to confer with the several persons designated with the view of organizing the committee.

15. Professor Harold E. Jones appeared before the Board for consultation concerning the proposed yearbook on adolescence. The outline presented by Dr. Jones was approved with certain modifications and an appropriation of $750 was approved for committee expenses. The following committee was named for this yearbook: Harold E. Jones (chairman), Frank N. Freeman, Dr. W. W. Greulich, Mark A. May, and Daniel A. Prescott. (Subsequently Reginald Bell and Gordon Mackenzie were added to the committee.)

16. Professor Harl R. Douglass appeared before the Board with a proposal for a yearbook on the topic "The New High-School Curriculum." The general plan of the proposed yearbook was considered somewhat favorably by the Board and specific suggestions were offered for consideration in revising the outline. (Professor Douglass later decided to withdraw the proposal.)

17. Chairman Bagley suggested that the Board select a committee of its members for preliminary consideration of the desirability of providing for a yearbook dealing with problems of educational reconstruction in the postwar period. The Board agreed that the question should be explored. (Subsequently Mr. Charters (chairman), Miss Goodykoontz, and Mr. Freeman were appointed as the committee.)

II. Chicago Meeting of the Board

Chicago, Illinois: Hotel Stevens, May 24

Present: Directors Tyler (Chairman), Brownell, Charters, Freeman, Goodykoontz, Stoddard, and Henry (Secretary)

1. The Secretary presented a report of comparative sales of the last six yearbooks. It was agreed that a study should be made of means of promoting the sale of yearbooks.

2. The Secretary was instructed to advise the chairman of yearbook committees of the necessity for economical use of funds provided for committee expenses as well as for limiting the size of the yearbooks to the actual requirements of effective treatment of the topic.

3. A report of the membership of the Society was received from the Secretary and suggestions offered for the promotion of membership during the year.

4. The Treasurer presented a report of receipts and expenditures from July, 1941, to May, 1942. It was noted that expenditures during this period exceeded the receipts by approximately $2,000. This was explained as due to the arrearages in the payment of royalties due the Society for the sale of yearbooks.

5. The question of the desirability of incorporating the Society has been discussed by the Board at different times in recent years. The Chairman, the Secretary, and Mr. Charters were named as a committee to make further study of this matter and report at a later meeting.

6. Mr. Stoddard, chairman of the special committee appointed to confer with the publishers regarding the inventory of the stock of yearbooks on hand and the arrearage in the payment of amounts due the Society from yearbook sales in recent years, reported the results of a conference held in Chicago on April 29. In consideration of the Society's interest in the handling of the yearbooks and with the view of facilitating the settlement of the publishers' financial obligations to the Society, it was decided to propose the establishment of a plan of creditor representation in the management of the company holding the agency for the sale of the yearbooks. A committee consisting of Messrs. Charters (chairman), Tyler, and Henry was appointed to formulate such a proposal in co-operation with other creditors of the company and to carry on such negotiations as might be necessary in connection therewith.

7. The suggestion, first made at the February meeting, that a yearbook be prepared on educational problems of the postwar period was discussed at length. A committee consisting of Mr. Charters (chairman), Miss Goodykoontz, and Mr. Freeman was appointed to develop plans for this yearbook.

8. In compliance with the request of the chairman of the committee for the yearbook, *Vocational Education*, Professor F. G. Nichols was appointed to membership on this committee.

9. The Board approved the recommendation of the chairman of the committee for the yearbook on language arts for the appointment of Professor Donald Durrell and Miss Helen Heffernan as members of the committee.

10. A letter was received from Dean Kefauver, chairman of the committee for the yearbook on educational administration, reporting that the following persons had accepted the invitation to serve as members of the committee: William G. Carr, Willard Ellsbree, Herold C. Hunt, Gordon Mackenzie, and J. B. Sears. The Board voted that this yearbook should be limited to one of the two volumes to constitute the yearbook for 1945.

11. Professor Harold E. Jones reported by letter that the following persons had accepted the invitation to serve as members of the committee for the yearbook on adolescence: Reginald Bell, Frank N. Freeman, Dr. W. W. Greulich, Gordon Mackenzie, Mark A. May, and Daniel A. Prescott.

III. Chicago Meeting of the Board

Chicago, Illinois: Palmer House, November 15

Present: Directors Tyler (Chairman), Brownell, Charters, Goodykoontz, Stoddard, and Henry (Secretary)

Absent: Director Freeman

1. A report on the membership of the Society for 1942 was presented by the Secretary. The present membership of 1,136 represents an increase of 68 over the membership of last year.

2. The Secretary reported that the yearbook, *The Library in General Education*, was in the press. Due to the excessive length of the manuscript for the yearbook, *Vocational Education*, the Secretary was instructed to prepare this manuscript for printing within the limitation of a volume of five hundred pages or less.

3. The Board voted to provide an index for yearbooks published after 1943 and the Editor was authorized to call upon the committees to furnish manuscripts early enough to allow time to prepare the index. It was agreed that an index might be provided for each volume of the yearbook for 1943, if time permits.

4. Suggestions were made relative to the programs being planned for the annual meeting of the Society in February, 1943. The Secretary was instructed to complete arrangements for the programs, conferring with the chairmen of the yearbook committees.

5. A report was presented by Mr. Charters, chairman of a special committee on negotiations with the publishers of the yearbooks. It was noted that the proposal for creditor participation in the management of the company selling the yearbooks was not accepted by the publishers. The various propositions considered in the negotiations carried on since last June were described. The Board

instructed the special committee to resubmit its original proposal, with the added stipulation that the existing agency agreement with the company will be terminated if the proposed change in management of the company should be rejected.

6. With the view of co-ordinating the services involved in the sale of yearbooks with the services performed by the executive office of the Society, the Board voted to transfer the agency for the yearbooks to the Department of Education of the University of Chicago in the event the proposal ordered to be submitted to the present agents is not acceptable to them. The Secretary was instructed to complete arrangements for this transfer of the agency and to remove the present stock of yearbooks to the new location if it should become necessary to terminate the existing agency agreement.

7. The special committee was further instructed to continue negotiations with the publishers with the view of securing a satisfactory agreement with reference to the settlement of the unpaid balance of royalties due from previous sales of yearbooks.

8. Mr. Charters reported the results of a preliminary study of the plan for a yearbook on postwar education, as developed by the committee appointed at the last meeting. The Board requested Mr. Charters and Miss Goodykoontz to continue the study of the problem with the view of providing a proposal for the consideration of the Board at the meeting next February.

REPORT OF THE TREASURER OF THE SOCIETY
1941–1942

RECEIPTS

	Year Ended June 30, 1942
Membership dues	$ 2,894.85
Fees for quotations, etc.	25.00
Interest and dividends on securities	330.26
Interest on savings accounts	129.56
Sales of yearbooks	7,786.73
Sale of securities	2,060.00
Sale of old metal	760.50
Total receipts	$13,986.90

EXPENDITURES

Yearbooks:	
Manufacture and distribution	$ 5,388.60
Reprinting	209.26
Preparation	3,057.47
Meetings of the Society and Board of Directors	604.54
Secretary's office:	
Editorial, secretarial, and clerical	2,476.71
Rent	100.00
Supplies, printing, etc.	209.51
Auditing	100.00
Transfer of office	210.36
Miscellaneous	65.92
Total expenditures	$12,422.37

ASSETS

Excess of receipts over expenditures	$ 1,564.53
Cash in banks at beginning of period	6,172.09
Cash in banks at end of period	$ 7,736.62
Securities at cost value	8,136.89
Royalties due on sales of yearbooks	16,558.24
Total assets	$32,431.75

NELSON B. HENRY, *Treasurer*

MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

(This list includes all persons enrolled December 31, 1942, whether for 1942 or 1943)

HONORARY MEMBERS

Dewey, Emeritus Professor John, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.
Holmes, Manfred J., Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

Abelson, Dr. Harold H., College of the City of New York, New York, N.Y.
Abernethy, Professor Ethel M., Queens College, Charlotte, N.C.
Acton, Miss Lillian, Instructor, State Teachers College, Newark, N.J.
Adams, Professor Nelle A., University of Vermont, Burlington, Vt.
Adams, Miss Ruby M., Director of Elementary Education, Schenectady, N.Y.
Aiken, E. S., Supervisor, Rapides Parish Schools, Alexandria, La.
Alexander, Professor Carter, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., New York, N.Y.
Allen, Miss Clara B., 145 East Maple Avenue, Ottumwa, Iowa
Anderson, C. T., Asst. Secretary, Board of Education, Detroit, Mich.
Anderson, Evans, Waldorf College, Forest City, Iowa
Anderson, Harold A., Department of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Anderson, Homer W., Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo.
Anderson, Professor Howard R., Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.
Anderson, John E., Dir., Inst. Child Welfare, Univ. of Minn., Minneapolis, Minn.
Anderson, Miss Marion, Ginn and Company, Park Square, Boston, Mass.
Andrus, Dr. Ruth, State Department of Education, Albany, N.Y.
Anspaugh, G. E., Principal, Bryant School, 1355 S. Kedvale Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Antell, Henry, 1304 New York Avenue, Brooklyn, N.Y.
Archer, Professor C. P., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
Armstrong, Miss Sara M., State Normal School, Framingham Centre, Mass.
Arsenian, Professor Seth, Springfield College, Springfield, Mass.
Artley, A. Sterl, Stephens College, Columbia, Mo.
Asgis, Dr. Alfred J., 33 West 42nd Street, New York. N.Y.
Ashbaugh, Dr. Ernest J., Miami University, Oxford, Ohio
Atkins, Miss Helen L., Dean of Girls, Manual Training High School, Denver, Colo.
Atkinson, William N., Dean, Jackson Junior College, Jackson, Mich.
Aughinbaugh, George F., Jr., Salinas Junior College, Salinas, Calif.
Augustin, Miss Eloise D., Critic, State Normal School, Oneonta, N.Y.
Avery, George T., United States Navy Yard, Oakland Calif.
Aydelott, Clarence R., Dir., Instruction and Curriculum, St. Louis, Mo.
Ayer, Miss Jean, 8 Scholes Lane, Essex, Conn.

Babcock, E. H., Superintendent of Schools, Grand Haven, Mich.
Babcock, George T., 182 Second Street, San Francisco, Calif.
Backus, Miss Joyce, Librarian, State College, San Jose, Calif.
Bagley, Professor William C., 525 West 120th Street, New York, N.Y.
Bailey, D. L., Western Illinois State Teachers College, Macomb, Ill.
Bailey, Dr. Francis L., Gorham Normal School, Gorham, Me.
Baker, Miss Edith M., Acting Librarian, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.

Baker, Miss Edna Dean, Pres., National College of Education, Evanston, Ill.
Baker, H. Leigh, Dean, College of Education, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa
Baker, Harold V., Principal, Daniel Webster School, New York, N.Y.
Baker, Dr. Harry J., Dir., Psychological Clinic, Public Schools, Detroit, Mich.
Baker, Ira Y., County Superintendent, Court House, Gettysburg, Pa.
Ballou, Frank W., Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D.C.
Balyeat, Professor F. A., University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.
Barber, Professor Fred H., Box 247, Emory, Va.
Bardy, Joseph, Bellerich Apts., 15th and Spruce Sts., Philadelphia, Pa.
Bare, J. M., Principal, Birchwood High School, Birchwood, Tenn.
Barrett, Rt. Rev. Msgr. John I., Franklin and Cathedral Sts., Baltimore, Md.
Barrie, Miss Margaret J., Principal, Lincoln School, Hawthorne, N.J.
Barth, Rev. Pius J., Dean, Quincy College, Quincy, Ill.
Bartlett, Roland O., North Hatley, Quebec, Canada
Batchelder, Miss Mildred L., American Library Association, Chicago, Ill.
Beall, Dr. Ross H., University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Okla.
Bear, Professor Robert M., Dartmouth College, Hanover, N.H.
Beauchamp, George A., 191 E. Lincoln Street, Birmingham, Mich.
Beck, Professor Hubert Park, Rhode Island State College, Kingston, R.I.
Bedell, Professor Ralph, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr.
Behrens, Prof. Minnie, Sam Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville, Tex.
Bell, Miss Dorothy M., President, Bradford Junior College, Bradford, Mass.
Bell, Dr. J. Carleton, 1032A Sterling Place, Brooklyn, N.Y.
Bell, Dr. Millard D., Superintendent of Schools, Willmette, Ill.
Bell, Professor Reginald, Stanford University, Calif.
Bender, John F., School of Education, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.
Benner, Thomas E., Dean, College of Education, Univ. of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
Bennett, Miss Margaret E., Dir. of Guidance, Public Schools, Pasadena, Calif.
Benson, Dr. C. E., New York University, Washington Square, New York, N.Y.
Benson, J. R., 6131 Magnolia Avenue, St. Louis, Mo.
Benz, H. E., College of Education, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio
Berg, Locksley D., Principal, Monroe School, Minneapolis, Minn.
Berg, Selmer H., Superintendent of Schools, Rockford, Ill.
Bergman, W. G., Director, Instr. Research, Board of Education, Detroit, Mich.
Berkson, I. B., 174 Rich Avenue, Mount Vernon, N.Y.
Bernard, Professor Harold W., School of Education, Univ. of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.
Berry, Professor Charles Scott, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
Berry, Merrill M., Superintendent of Schools, Chillicothe, Ohio
Bert, Reese E., Asst. City Superintendent of Schools, Modesto, Calif.
Betts, Professor Emmett A., Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.
Bigelow, Karl W., American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.
Billett, Professor Roy O., Boston University, Boston, Mass.
Billig, Dr. Florence Grace, Wayne University, Detroit, Mich.
Binnie, Miss Clara G., 9 Tennis Crescent, Toronto, Canada
Bishop, Fred G., Superintendent of Schools, Two Rivers, Wis.
Bixler, H. H., Dir., Research and Guidance, Board of Education, Atlanta, Ga.
Bixler, Professor Lorin, Muskingum College, New Concord, Ohio
Black, H. B., Superintendent of Schools, Mattoon, Ill.
Blackburn, J. Albert, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N.J.
Blair, Professor Glenn M., College of Educ. University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
Bloomers, Paul, 107 N. Clinton Street, Iowa City, Iowa
Boardman, Professor Charles W., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
Boggan, T. K., Superintendent of Schools, Picayune, Miss.
Bolton, Professor Frederick E., University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.
Bond, G. W., Dean, Southeastern Louisiana College, Hammond, La.
Bond, Professor Guy L., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
Bontrager, O. R., State Teachers College, California, Pa.
Booker, Ivan A., Asst. Dir., Research Division, N.E.A., Washington, D.C.

Bookwalter, Professor Karl W., Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.
Booth, C. L., Superintendent of Schools, Pasco, Wash.
Boraas, Julius, St. Olaf College, Northfield, Minn.
Boros, Arnold L., Public School 36, Bronx, New York, N.Y.
Bossing, Professor Nelson L., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
Bowman, Clyde A., Dir., Dept. of Industrial Arts, Stout Inst., Menomonie, Wis.
Bowyer, Vernon, W.P.A. Education, 228 N. LaSalle Street, Chicago, Ill.
Boyce, Arthur C., American Mission, Teheran, Iran
Boyd, Fred, 416 North Limestone, Lexington, Ky.
Boyles, R. E., Principal, Washington High School, Washington, Pa.
Bracken, John L., 7500 Maryland Avenue, Clayton, Mo.
Bradner, J. W., Superintendent of Schools, Middlesboro, Ky.
Bragdon, Miss Helen D., 348 Mentor Avenue, Painesville, Ohio
Branom, Frederick K., Chicago Teachers College, Chicago, Ill.
Brechbill, Professor Henry, University of Maryland, College Park, Md.
Breed, Professor Frederick S., Dune Acres, Chesterton, Ind.
Bresnehen, Dr. Ella L., Dir., Dept. Educ. Investigation and Meas., Boston, Mass.
Brewer, Professor John M., Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
Bridgett, Miss Alice E., Colony Street School, Wallingford, Conn.
Bridgman, Ralph P., 131 Westminster Road, Brooklyn, N.Y.
Bright, Ira J., Superintendent of Schools, Leavenworth, Kas.
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